DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 031 772 24 CG 004 570

By-Larson, Lyle Eugene
The Structure and Process of Social Influence During Adolescence: An Examination of the Salience Hierarchy. Final Report.
Alberta Univ., Edmonton.
Spons Agency-Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
Bureau No-BR-7-I-105
Pub Date Mar 69
Grant-OEG-9-8-070105-00350-010
Note-142p.
EDRS Price MF-$0.75 HC-$7.20
Descriptors-*Adolescents, *Parent Child Relationship, *Parent Influence, *Parent Role, Peer Relationship, Social Relations

This study deals with the relative influence of parents and peers during adolescence. The assumption that these are the central references in the life space of the adolescent is widely documented in the available research. The basic research question in this study is: Who has the most influence on youth and under what conditions is this influence regulated? The study focuses on the relationship of the adolescent with his reference sets. A total of 1,500 adolescents were sent questionnaires. On the basis of responses to 15 questionnaire items subjects were divided into three groups: (1) parent oriented, (2) best friend oriented, and (3) equally oriented to parents and best friends. Results indicate that the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his parents is an important predictor of the salience hierarchy during adolescence; the higher the quality of parent-adolescent effect, the higher the pro-parent orientations of youth. Grade level is also seen as an efficient predictor of reference set preferences. The findings also imply that adolescents do not reject parents but rather expand their influence horizons to a larger number and kind of referents. (Author/KJ)

ED031772

BR 7-I-105
PA 24

OE-BR

FINAL REPORT
Project No. 7-I-105
Grant No. OEG-9-8-070105-00350(010)

THE STRUCTURE AND PROCESS OF SOCIAL INFLUENCE DURING ADOLESCENCE: AN EXAMINATION OF THE SALIENCE HIERARCHY

March 1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

CG 004570

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

FINAL REPORT

Project No. 7-I-105
Grant No. OEG-9-8-070105-00350(010)

THE STRUCTURE AND PROCESS OF SOCIAL INFLUENCE DURING ADOLESCENCE: AN EXAMINATION OF THE SALIENCE HIERARCHY

Lyle Eugene Larson

University of Alberta

Edmonton, Alberta

March 1969

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

CONTENTS

List of Tables iii

List of Figures v

Summary 1

Chapter 1 Introduction and General Frame of Reference 6

- Purpose 6
- Importance of study 6
- General frame of reference 8
- Review of literature 14
- A conceptual model of social influence during adolescence 18
- Hypotheses for test 27
- Methods 29

Chapter 2 Findings and Analysis 36

- Description of sample 36
- The salience hierarchy 39
- Prediction of salience hierarchy in perspective 48
  - Intercorrelation of predictor variables 49
  - Third order relationships 55
  - Standardization 92
  - Conclusions 99
  - Discussion 101
- Summary 107

Chapter 3 Conclusions and Recommendations 109

References 112

Appendix A - Standardization 117

Appendix B - Parent-Adolescent Affect 119

Appendix C - Research Instrument 121

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1 Description of Sample 37

2 Salience Hierarchy by Grade Level 42

3 Salience Hierarchy by Sex 42

4 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Social Position 44

5 Salience Hierarchy by Quality of Parent-Adolescent Affect 44

6 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals 46

7 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Situational Effect 46

8 Interrelationships Among Predictor Variables Associated with the Salience Hierarchy 50

9 Gamma Matrix: Intercorrelations Among Sex, ISP, Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help, and Situational Effect 56

10 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Sex 56

11 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Grade Level 57

12 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Index of Social Position 58

13 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Effect of Situations 60

14 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Sex 61

15 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Grade Level 62

16 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Index of Social Position 63

17 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Sex 65

18 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Index of Social Position 66

LIST OF TABLES (cont'd.)

Table

19 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level 67

20 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals 68

21 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Effect of Situations 69

22 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level and Sex 71

23 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level, Sex, and Social Class 76

24 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level and Situation Effect 84

25 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level, Sex, and Situation Effect 88

26 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Sex, Parent-Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations 93

27 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations 95

28 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Index of Social Position, Parent-Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations 97

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1 Still-Life Picture of Socialization 9

2 Reference Set Hierarchy: Structures and Conditions of Influence 11

3 Age-Status and Salience Hierarchy 19

4 The Relationship Model 25

5 Relationship Model and Salience 26

6* Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex 72

7* Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex 73

8 Parent Priority by Grade Level, High Parent-Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Social Class 78

9 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, High Parent-Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Social Class 80

10 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Lower Class 81

11 Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Situational Effect 86

12 Parent and Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Situational Effect, and Sex 90

13 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Changers Due to Effect of Situations, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex 91

---

*These figures also appear on pages 4 and 5 in the Summary.

SUMMARY

This study deals with the relative influence of parents and peers during adolescence. The assumption that these are the central referents in the life space of the adolescent is widely documented in the available research. However, an analysis of the research reveals that peer influence, parent influence, and the influence of the teacher are shown in various and sundry ways to be more salient than the other. Indeed, a large body of research documents the predominance of the peer group. The significance of this literature is illustrated in Coleman's assertion (1961:3) that the adolescent "maintains only a thread of connection with the outside adult society." If the studies on peer influence told the whole story, the study of the family might well be limited to childhood and marriage. In contrast, however, much of family research illustrates the influence of differing family structures, conditions, and processes on adolescent attitudes and behaviors (cf. Clausen, 1966). Similarly, the implicit suggestion in a recent analysis of the literature on the school and delinquency (Schafer and Polk, 1967:234-246) is that the school can make or break the child, almost at will, regardless of the influence of either parents or peers. It is clear that the findings concerning the influences during adolescence do not reflect an integrative nor complementary perspective. Thus, the basic research question in this study is: Who has the most influence on youth and under what conditions is this influence regulated? In consequence, two primary objectives of this study may be identified: (a) to ascertain the relative perceptions of youth as to whether their parents are most salient, their peers are most salient, or whether both parents and peers are seen to be equally salient;* and (b) to assess the structures and processes of social influence which enable the prediction of the salience hierarchy (hierarchical preferences) among youth. In other words, the salience hierarchy is treated as the dependent variable and the structures and processes of social influence as the independent variables.

---

*The assignment of equal salience to both parents and peers has not been considered in previous research. This omission is particularly significant in evaluating youth-adult relationships in the context of expanding contacts among youth. It may also be noted here that it was originally intended that the influence of teachers relative to parents and peers would be fully explored. Two considerations led the author to exclude the influence of teachers from this analysis - the Thesis. (1) Consistent with the conceptual model to be outlined, teachers were found to be consistently at the bottom of the hierarchical preferences of youth when placed in the parent-peer-teacher perspective. (2) The relative salience of parents and peers developed into a considerably more complex and forbidding social phenomenon than the author had anticipated. To have attempted to do justice to both relationships (parent-peer and parent-peer-teacher) would have led far beyond the reasonable limitations of a doctoral dissertation upon which this report is based.

The frame of reference and the hypotheses tested are derived from a more general model of developmental socialization. The latter is seen to include three central elements: (a) the influence of the personality of the socializee, (b) the way in which learning occurs, and (c) the structure and process of social influence. This study focuses on a particular aspect of the third and most important aspect of socialization - the *relationship* of the adolescent with his reference sets (defined as the cast of significant others that the adolescent takes into account when he acts). The relationship model is seen to embrace three alternative explanations of the hierarchical preferences among youth: (a) *grade level* - the higher the grade in secondary school, the more peer oriented the youth; (b) *helpmate* - the greater the perceived ability and desire of a particular referent to help the adolescent decide on goals, the greater the importance of that referent; and (c) the *situation* - the choice patterns of youth between parents and peers will vary by the type of situation. It is assumed that the relative *quality* of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets will not only be related to the hierarchical preferences of youth but that the perception of a satisfying relationship will be a more efficient predictor of these preferences than each of the three alternative explanations noted above. Thus, the basic hypothesis tested in this study is: the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets will sustain as the most efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy when grade level, helpmate, and the situational hypotheses are controlled. The influence of sex and social class are also considered.

In order to test the relationship model, questionnaires were administered to over 1500 adolescents in a community of 11,000 in southern Oregon. The entire population of seventh, ninth, and twelfth graders that were in school on the days of administration were included in the study. On the basis of the responses to 15 questionnaire items, designed to measure the relative salience of parents and best friends to the adolescent, the respondents were classified into three categories: those who are parent oriented, those who are best friend oriented, and those who assign equal salience to both parents and best friends. The independent and relative effect of each of the predictor variables on these hierarchical preferences are then assessed through analysis of percentage patterns and statistical techniques.

The findings are clear. The quality of the adolescent's relationship with his parents is an important predictor of the salience hierarchy during adolescence: the higher the quality of parent-adolescent affect, the higher the pro-parent orientations of youth. However, grade level is also seen as an efficient predictor of reference set preferences. Twelfth graders are found to be considerably more oriented to their best friends than either ninth or seventh graders. Similarly, adolescent girls are found to be considerably more best friend oriented than adolescent boys at all grade levels and at all levels of parent-adolescent affect. This difference is seen to be most pronounced in the ninth grade. It was also found that the inclusion of an "equal salience" category is an essential element in assessing the orientations of youth to their parents. When parent priority alone is considered, grade level is seen to have a rather pronounced effect on the orientations of youth. However, when parent orientation and parent/best friend orientation is combined (referred to as pro-parent priority), the effect of grade level is considerably minimized. In this case, the significance of the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship becomes more pronounced. The character of the interrelationships among grade level, sex, and parent-adolescent affect as predictors of the salience hierarchy are graphically summarized on the following two pages. Social class, reference set help - helpmate hypothesis, and the effect of various situations are found to be weak predictors of the salience hierarchy.

The implications of the above findings are equally as clear as the findings themselves. The theoretical assumptions and empirical findings of a large number of studies on adolescent attitudes and behaviors are simply inaccurate. The majority of youth have not rejected their parents. They do not isolate themselves into a separate society. They have simply expanded their influence horizons to a larger number and kind of referents. This has been seen particularly in the findings regarding pro-parent hierarchical preferences. Similarly, the assumption that age mates take priority over parents is simply unreasonable without considering the relationship matrix among youth. Indeed, it is shown in this study that the relative quality of parent-adolescent affect must be considered in any future assessment of the salience hierarchy among adolescents.

It is recommended that: (a) additional research be carried out on the factors that facilitate satisfying relationships between socializees and socializers, particularly in the teacher-youth context; and (b) that all teachers be required to have a more sophisticated training in child development, adolescent problems, techniques of facilitative teacher-student interaction, and counseling theory.

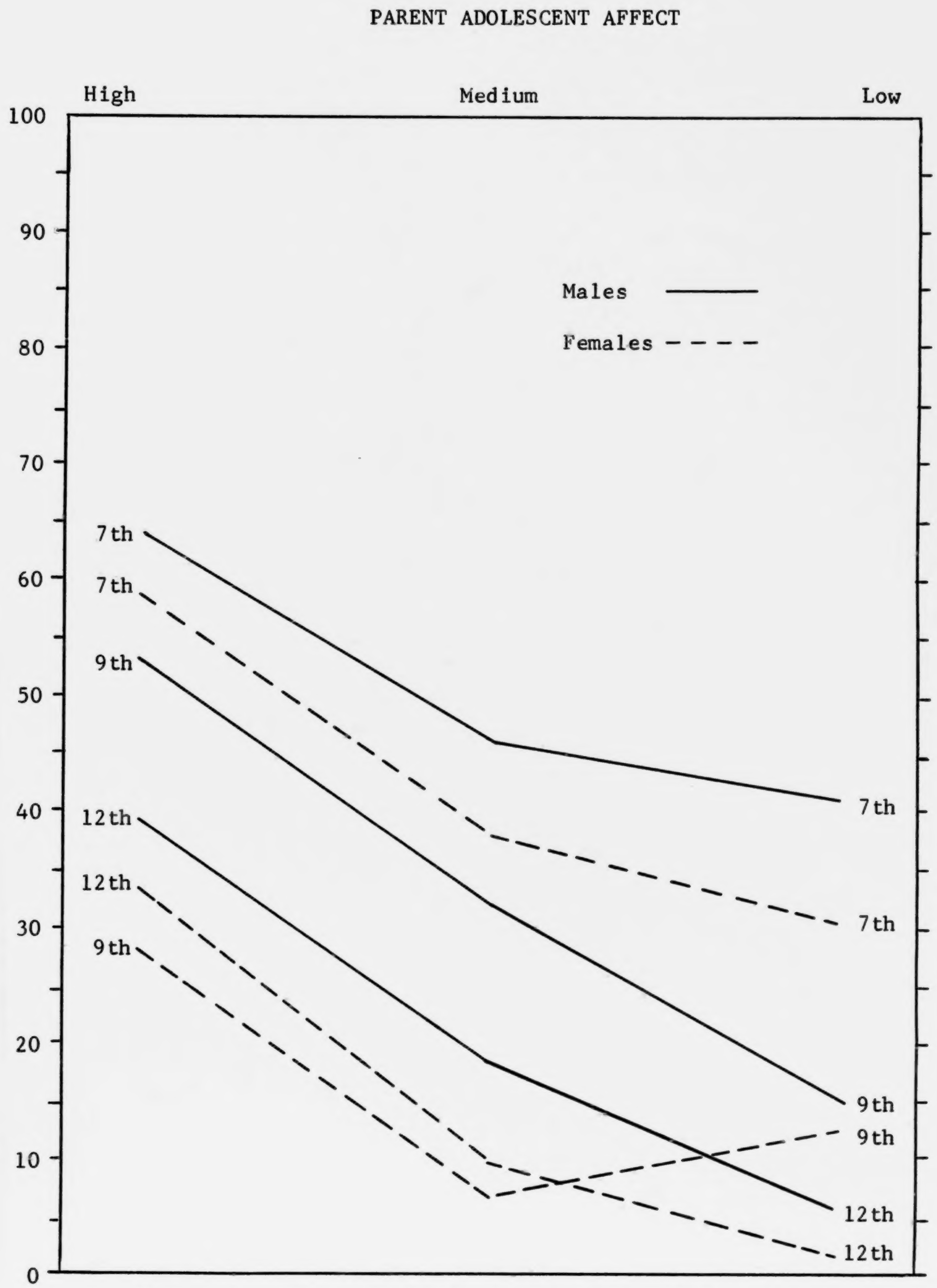


Figure 6 Parent Priority by Grade Level Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex

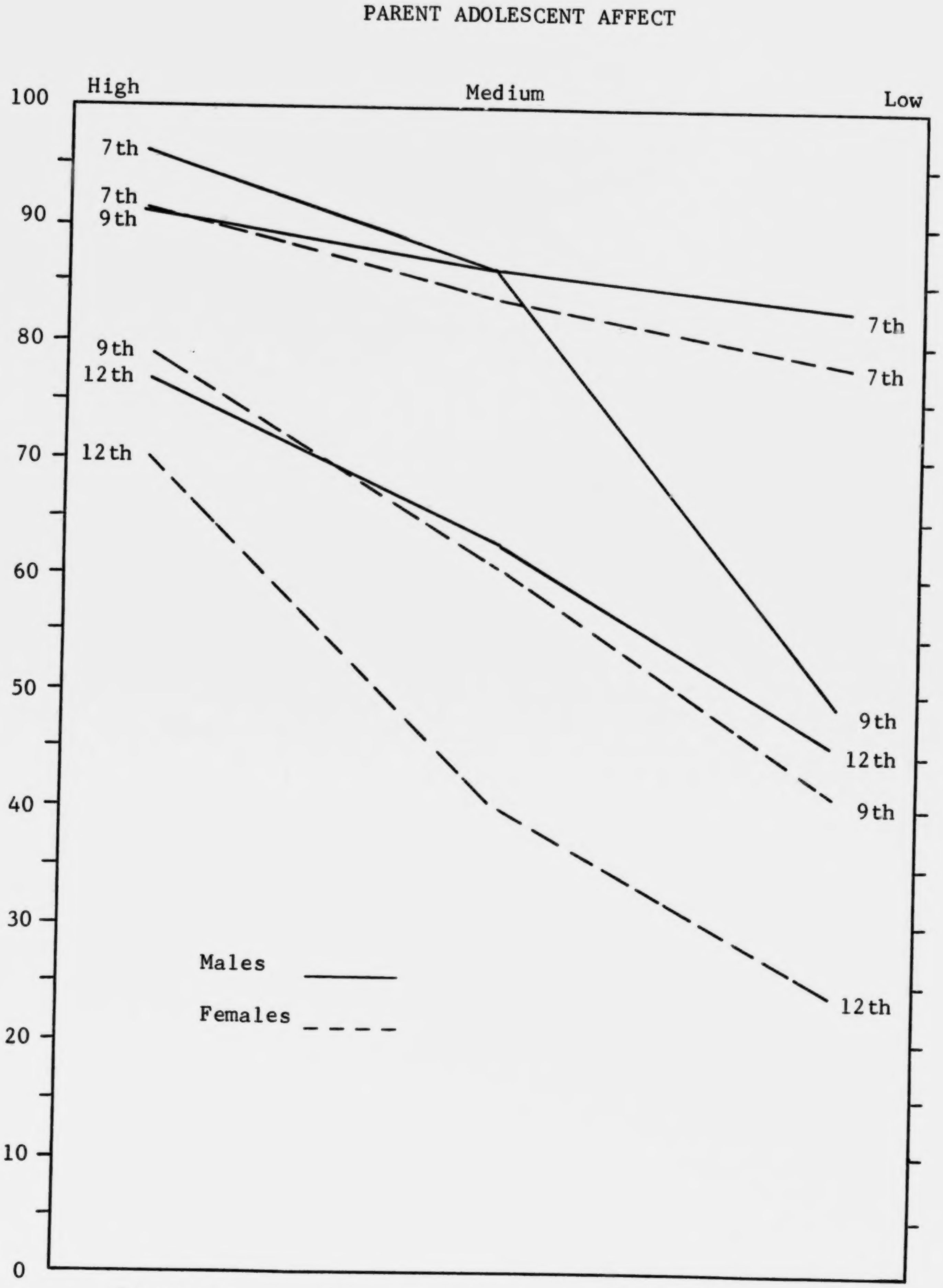


Figure 7 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL FRAME OF REFERENCE

Purpose

The general purpose of this study is to investigate one of the central elements of socialization--the structure and process of social influence. The focus of our attention is the period of adolescence. The differential salience (hierarchical pattern of influence) of parents, best friends, and teachers as perceived by youth will be specifically examined. The basic question may be stated quite simply as "who has the most influence on youth under what conditions?" Although the study explores the relative perceptions of youth as to who has the most influence (parents, best friends, or teachers), the emphasis is upon the socio-cultural conditions which affect these perceptions. In other words, the salience hierarchy (hierarchical preferences among youth) is treated as the dependent variable and the structures and processes of social influence are the independent variables.

An attempt is made to trace the interpenetrations and linkages among the central referents in the life space of the adolescent. There are other important units of influence than those defined as "central referents" in this study such as siblings, relatives, the minister, and the boy scout troop. As we shall see later, however, the preponderance of evidence suggests that parents, peers, and teachers are the most important for the majority of youth. More important, nonetheless, is that this study is not designed to expand the influence horizon but rather to clarify and articulate more effectively the nature of the predominant influences.

Another purpose of this study is to carefully test an alternative hypothesis to those commonly pursued in the explanation of salience during adolescence. This hypothesis is referred to as the relationship hypothesis. It states simply that the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets is an essential facet of the salience of a given reference set. Reference set is herein defined as the cast of significant others whom the individual takes into account when he acts (Goodman, 1965). It further allows the adolescent to assign equal salience to both his parents and best friends. The empirical relationship of this hypothesis to the grade level hypothesis, the "helpmate" hypothesis, and the situational hypothesis is explored.

Importance of Study

Manuscripts of this type should not be written for the sake of exercise nor experience along. Somewhere beyond or behind the subtleties of verbiage there must be a pragmatic, heuristic purpose that while theoretical and empirical is also applicable to the solution of problems. Each of these three considerations is important to this study.

A large body of literature, empirical and otherwise, tends to support the difficulty of the family and the school in the socializing of youth. The family, for example, is described as a representative of a disparate culture with inapplicable ideas and rules (cf. Davis, 1940). Accordingly, the family is said to either step aside voluntarily or to be pushed aside by the adolescent in his attempt to conform to the wishes of his age-mates. A study by Brittain (1963), for example, found that adolescents tend to avoid being different from their peers and to avoid separation from them. Similarly, they sought to eliminate adult-youth cross-pressures by avoiding communication with the adult world.

Studies of the school likewise suggest that the school-adolescent relationship is becoming increasingly problematical. Coleman (1961) found that youth are basically anti-intellectual in preference for sports and popularity. Rhea (1968), in his study, takes the position that the schools are increasingly facilitating intellectual apathy even among the academically oriented youth. The more important point, here, however, is the recurrent indication in several studies that the school can make or break the child regardless of the prior or current influence of parent or peer. A number of these studies are reported in a recent chapter by Schafer and Polk (1967:222-267). Conversely, other literature (cf. Epperson, 1964; Douvan and Adelson, 1966) gives strong support to the pervasive influence of the family during adolescence. In other words, in spite of a large body of empirical literature, the studies taken as a whole tend to portray isolated and disconnected tidbits of the influence posture. More apparent, however, is that peer influence, parent influence, and the influence of the school are demonstrated in various and sundry ways to be more salient than the other, e.g., the family more so than the school, the school more so than the family. Empirically, then, a large void exists.

The lack of a stated empirical interconnection among the studies of the influence process also reflects a paucity of theoretical interconvergence. The most general conclusion in a recent publication on socialization theory concerning the myriad of competing and interacting sources of influence is as follows: (Clausen, 1968:177).

> What is the degree of interpenetration of the influences of various agents in the major socialization settings? How can the interpenetrations or the linkages between systems best be characterized and indexed? How can the explicit and implicit value orientations of different settings be assessed as they impinge upon the child at different age levels?

In consequence, a conceptual model is needed which will facilitate a more precise measurement of the manner in which each of these intersecting social units (parents, peers, and school) are interrelated in terms of their influence on the adolescent.

Lastly, but not least, as well as attempting to fill an apparent gap in existing theory and research, it is deemed important that the insights gained concerning the interrelationships among primary social units represent a substantive contribution toward a more cogent and productive educational enterprise. Research of this type is particularly important when one considers the continued incidence of juvenile delinquency (cf. Short, 1966) and the rebellion in the schools (cf. Stinchcombe, 1964). If the predictors of the influence posture during adolescence were known, applicable socializing agencies would be better equipped in dealing with youth. Similarly, programs such as family life education may be considerably improved given the knowledge of why an adolescent opts for one social unit over another and how this option is mediated by the adolescent's situation.

General Frame of Reference

The empirical problem that this study is addressed to is a specific facet of a more general model of socialization. In the perspective of this writer, socialization contains three central elements: (a) the influence of the individual's perceptions and reactions on the influences - the "personality" of the socializee; (b) the structure and process of socio-cultural influence on the perceptions and behaviors of the individual; and (c) the modes and process by which the learning of roles takes place. Defined in this way socialization embraces social influence, personality, and role-learning in that the process of learning involves socializers, the socializee, and a specification of how the learning occurs. In this report, our discussion will be limited to the structure and process of social influence.

The organizational and normative structure represents a systematized influence on the person throughout his life cycle. As can be seen in figure 1 the nature of this structural spectrum is divided into primary and secondary influences. The immediate sociocultural context in which the individual is directly involved represents the primary source of influence. The persons, groups, and objects with which the individual interacts constitute the explicit source of power and support, resource and sanction, and means and models, all of which regulate the role-learning process. Relationships of both a socioemotional nature, e.g., the family and the peer group, as well as those of a formal nature, e.g., the school, are included in the category of primary influences. The sociocultural influence of the work organization, while of secondary importance to the role-learning of the child, for example, is a primary source of influence to the adult. Thus, the primary and secondary units of analysis are determined by the position the person occupies in a given situational context at a given point in time. This discussion leads to the assumption that reference groups, reference sets, or significant others in the life space of the individual represent mediation agencies which filter the effects of the secondary organizational and normative structure. Accordingly, the process of influence is presented schematically in the form of a funnel containing three filters: (1) the link of the reference set to the larger society, e.g., ethnic membership; (2) the reference set, itself - defined as the cast of significant others whom the individual takes

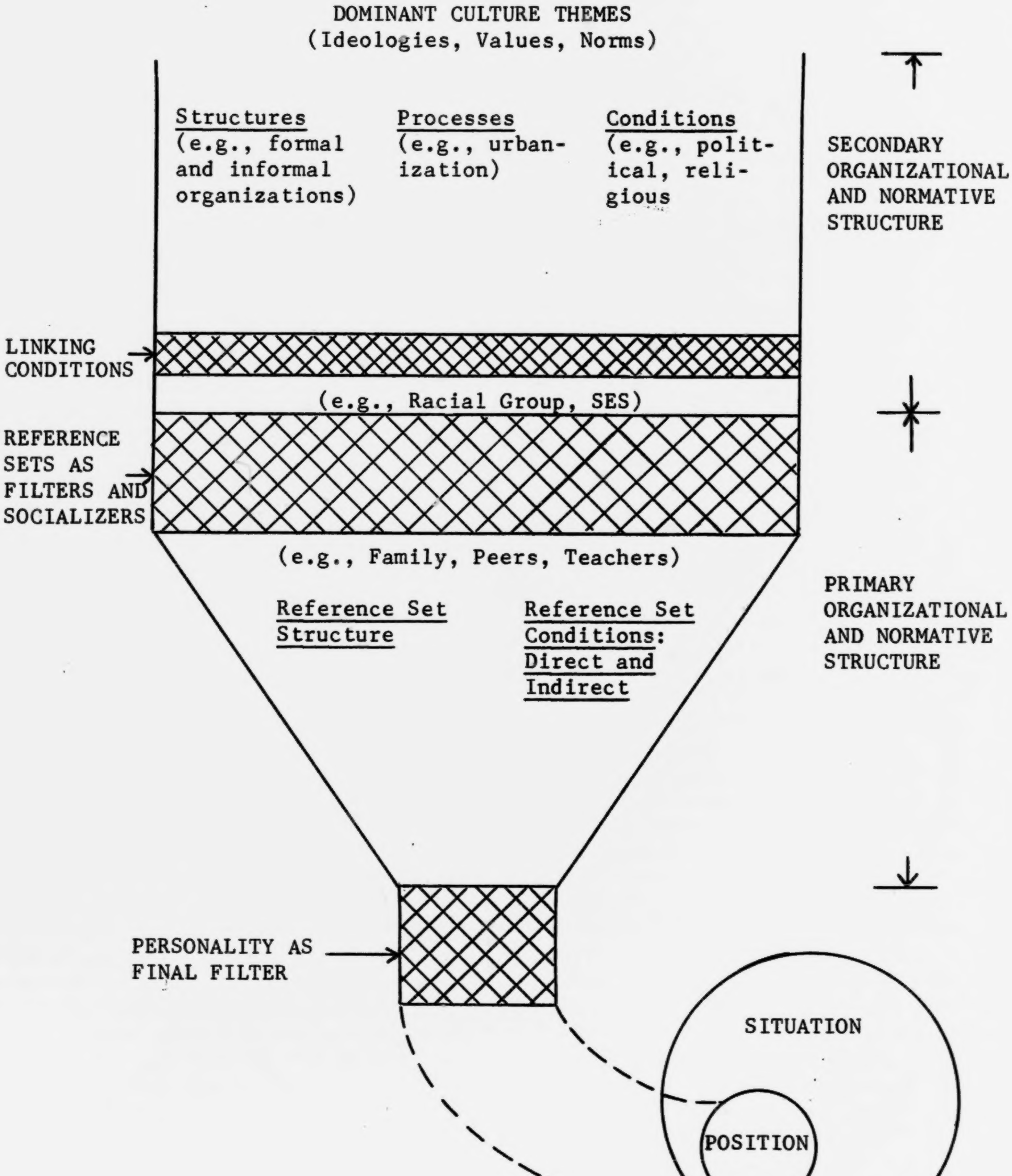

DOMINANT CULTURE THEMES
(Ideologies, Values, Norms)
Structures
(e.g., formal and informal organizations)
Processes
(e.g., urbanization)
Conditions
(e.g., political, religious
SECONDARY ORGANIZATIONAL AND NORMATIVE STRUCTURE
LINKING CONDITIONS
(e.g., Racial Group, SES)
REFERENCE SETS AS FILTERS AND SOCIALIZERS
(e.g., Family, Peers, Teachers)
Reference Set Structure
Reference Set Conditions: Direct and Indirect
PRIMARY ORGANIZATIONAL AND NORMATIVE STRUCTURE
PERSONALITY AS FINAL FILTER
SITUATION
POSITION

Figure 1 Still-life Picture of Socialization

into account when he acts (Goodman, 1965); and (3) the individual himself. The diagram portrays the structure and process of social influence as it impinges on a specific position which the individual occupies.

The diagram further illustrates a scheme for categorizing the various social influences. At the highest level of abstraction, in terms of the socializee, are dominant culture themes such as those related to the sex-role. At the secondary level of influence, one may identify particular types of organizations, processes such as technological development, and political or religious conditions in the larger society. These elements are mediated by the filtering operations of the socializee's reference set. Indeed, the social location of a reference set will have much to do with the nature of this input, i.e., the "linking conditions" referred to in the model. Finally, the simple knowledge that a particular reference set is acting as a filter in the socializing process is insufficient. It is also necessary to know something about the type of this filter and its relative effectiveness. As can be seen, the influence of a reference set may be divided into its structure and the conditions of influence. In terms of structure, the filtering operation will be mediated by the status of the actor and the type of reference set (whether an individual, several individuals, or a group). In the case of two or more individuals or a group it will be helpful to identify the composition and the type of structure. In addition, the relative effectiveness of primary units of social influence is mediated by the purpose, type, and quality of the relationship, the degree of consensus, and the frequency and circumstances of interaction between the reference set and the socializee, among other conditions.

Figure 2 presents this category scheme in greater detail. The lower or primary part of the influence funnel is portrayed with three central filtering and socializing agencies identified. The structures and conditions mediating the influence of each reference set on the adolescent are detailed in the appropriate boxes. It may be emphasized that figure 2 represents a conceptual device to clarify the elements of this approach. Consequently, no attempt needs to be made here to fully articulate each factor noted. Rodgers (1966) developed a conceptual model somewhat similar to the one developed here. The reader may be referred to this seminal paper for a more adequate discussion of the categorizing scheme for the family unit. We have added a considerable number of factors and in some cases redefined the categories. Furthermore, similar factors are outlined for peers and teachers as well. In order to clarify the intended referent of each factor noted selected elements are listed below.

1. Family

Structure

Type (Nuclear, Modified extended, Extended)
Power (Husband dominant, Egalitarian, Wife dominant, Family oriented)
Division of labor (Sex-stereotyped, Sex-reversed, Cooperative)
Composition (Age, Sex, Positions)

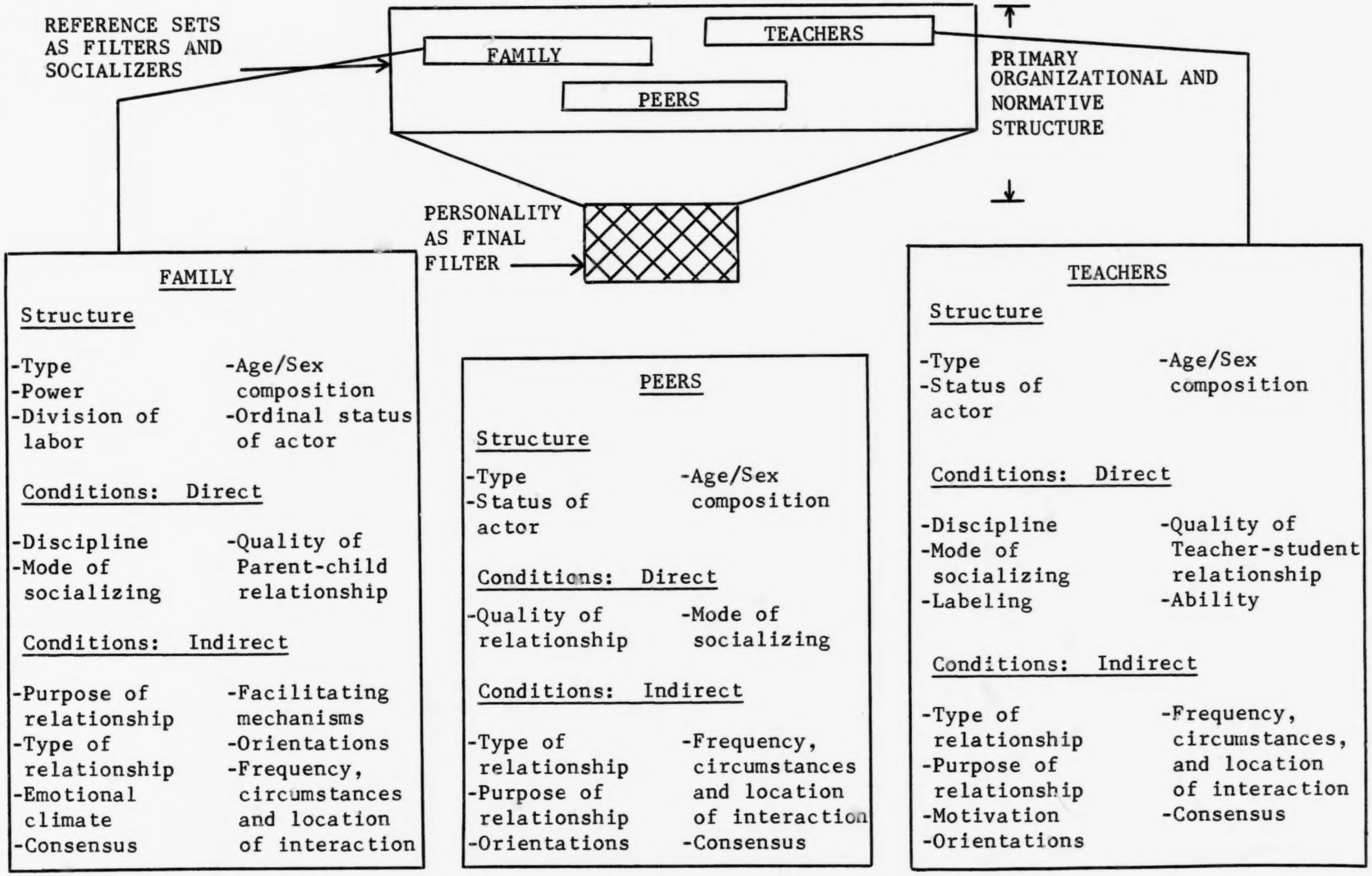

REFERENCE SETS AS FILTERS AND SOCIALIZERS
FAMILY
TEACHERS
PEERS
PRIMARY ORGANIZATIONAL AND NORMATIVE STRUCTURE
PERSONALITY AS FINAL FILTER
FAMILY
Structure
-Type
-Power
-Division of labor
-Age/Sex composition
-Ordinal status of actor
Conditions: Direct
-Discipline
-Mode of socializing
-Quality of Parent-child relationship
Conditions: Indirect
-Purpose of relationship
-Type of relationship
-Emotional climate
-Consensus
-Facilitating mechanisms
-Orientations
-Frequency, circumstances and location of interaction
PEERS
Structure
-Type
-Status of actor
-Age/Sex composition
Conditions: Direct
-Quality of relationship
-Mode of socializing
Conditions: Indirect
-Type of relationship
-Purpose of relationship
-Orientations
-Frequency, circumstances and location of interaction
-Consensus
TEACHERS
Structure
-Type
-Status of actor
-Age/Sex composition
Conditions: Direct
-Discipline
-Mode of socializing
-Labeling
-Quality of Teacher-student relationship
-Ability
Conditions: Indirect
-Type of relationship
-Purpose of relationship
-Motivation
-Orientations
-Frequency, circumstances, and location of interaction
-Consensus

Figure 2 Reference Set Hierarchy: Structures and Conditions of Influence

Conditions

Disciplinary procedure (Acceptant, Negligent, Punitive, Rejectant)
Mode of socializing (Technique, Degree of involvement, Sanctions)
Quality of parent-child relationship (High, Medium, Low)
Purpose of relationship (Expressive, Instrumental)
Type of relationship (Formal-vertical, Formal-horizontal, Informal-vertical, Informal-horizontal)
Emotional climate (Healthy, Unhealthy)
Consensus (High, Medium, Low)
Facilitating mechanisms (Facilities, Income, Travel, Books)
Orientations (Religious, Political, Values)

2. Peers

Structure

Type (Best friends, Grade-mates, Situation-mates, Peers)

3. Teachers

Structure

Type (Favorite teacher(s), Main teacher(s), Grade teacher(s), Teachers in interest areas)

Conditions

Labeling (High, Medium, Low)
Ability (High, Medium, Low)
Motivation (High, Medium, Low)

As illustrated in figure 2, the internal structure, process, and conditions of each social unit of influence, e.g., the family, are of central importance. Several excellent summaries of studies relating to the influence of various social units on the child are available including two on the family (Clausen, 1966:1-54; Becker, 1964:169-208), the school (Glidewell et al., 1966:221-256), and peers (Campbell, 1964: 289-322). A book by Ritchie and Koller (1964) describes the influence of family visits, family reunions, neighbors, guests, servants, and even passersby on child development. Other meaningful, but unexplored situations such as memorable events, coincidental contacts with persons which have a lasting influence, e.g., a preschooler's contact with a policeman after showering passing cars with a water hose, camps, and vacation experiences belong in the frame of reference of the socialization theorist. The effects of mass media (Maccoby, 1964:323-348) and cultural ideology[1] on the individual are also essential pursuits.

Similarly, the degree of consensus between the agents of socialization within a given social unit, such as the family, and the socializee would be an efficient test of a basic assumption of socialization. A recent paper deals specifically with this issue (Rodgers and Jacobsen, 1967). An unexplored but central question concerns the degree of consensus among the primary socializing agencies (e.g., family, peers, teachers) and the socializee. Other essential factors in the determination of the salience of a given social unit include the effect of the type of situation, the nature of the person-social unit relationship, the frequency, circumstances, and location of interaction, the personality of the socializee, and the type of membership the individual holds within a given social unit.

Given these theoretical considerations, we may now turn more specifically to the influence posture during adolescence.

The focus is upon the relative influence of parents, best friends, and teachers in the life space of the adolescent. As suggested earlier, there are other important units of influence. Indeed, there are a myriad of influences which impinge upon the adolescent. Two different studies have attempted to identify most of the plausible influences during adolescence (Winch, 1962; Goodman, 1966). Winch provided 24 possible responses which the respondent was to use in identifying the person who was responsible for the learning of particular activities or ideas. They were listed in five categories: immediate family, other relatives, other adults, peers, and other. In a separate administration he attempted to avoid the possibility of bias by simply asking the respondent to list persons he thought had been "most influential." The same approach was used with the stimulus: "Who has done the most for you?" In both cases, however, possible responses could be found elsewhere in the questionnaire (Winch, 1962:155-171). Consequently, he did not effectively control for bias. The usage of a host of significant other possibilities, nonetheless, failed to distract the adolescent from choosing his parents, peers, and teachers considerably more often than all other referents put together (Winch, 1962:192-193).

The study by Goodman (1966), on the other hand, provided no "possible responses." The stimulus was simply to list those persons and groups that usually come to mind as applauding or approving of us when we have done something we think is pretty good or those disapproving of us when we have done something wrong or have failed to do a good job. Based on these responses, the adolescents were asked to list those "most important" in one place and those whom they wished to be "close to" or "closer to" in another. These findings also demonstrate rather clearly that parents, peers, and teachers are the primary reference sets in the lives of adolescents.

---

[1] Perhaps the most profound example of the effect of culture is in the development of sex differences. Two outstanding sources to this literature may be obtained in Kagan (1964:137-168) and Maccoby (1966).

Based on these two studies, it appears reasonable to conclude that parents, peers, and teachers are the most important influences for the majority of youth. To be sure, extensive research remains to be done on the "myriad of influences." However, as we shall see, the literature on the central sources of influence presents a contradictory and confusing picture. Consequently, this study attempts to clarify the relationship among the predominant influences. Relevant literature will be presented and discussed below.

Review of Literature

Peer Influence

The most apparent argument in the literature seeks to defend the reality of a youth subculture. It is this assertion, perhaps more than any other, that has provided the greatest stimulus to theory and research on adolescent behavior. James Coleman (1961:3) is emphatic on this score:

> 'With his fellows, he comes to constitute a small society, one that has most of its important interactions within [author's emphasis] itself, and maintains only a few threads of connection with the outside adult society.

In support of this orientation, he sought and obtained funds to test this basic hypothesis. The results of this study proved conclusive according to Coleman. The evidence in support of a youth subculture included the sports orientation of the adolescent, his orientation toward good looks and the passionate desire to be popular. These were conceived as being counter to the culture of adults.[2] Similarly, a recent study by Schwartz and Merten (1967:453-469) found that adolescents have a distinctive world view with an argot all of their own. In a poll of 20 social scientists, most agreed that a youth subculture exists on the assumption that adults and youth have different values and behaviors (cf. Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963). To this point, nonetheless, this difference has not been empirically established. It would seem that there are two alternative explanations that are plausible. The first is that a youth subculture does not really exist at all - the adolescent only believes that it does. Similarly, the adult only believes that it does. The other possibility is that the idea of a youth culture may be valid but not adequately explored. Perhaps the really distinctive elements have not yet been identified. The relevance of these particular notions to this thesis lies in their connection to a massive amount of data concerning the relationship between age and a preference for peers.

---

[2] Coleman's findings and interpretations may be questioned in several ways. The most serious demeanour was his value-judgments prior to the study. These included: an a priori assumption that there was a youth subculture; a passionate concern for the adolescent; rather severe reservations concerning the value of athletics; a dismay with girls who wanted to be movie stars and models; and his desire that the adolescent world buy intellectualism without reservation. Secondly, of course, is that the evidence used in support of a youth subculture really is not distinctive to what adults themselves expect of youth or what adults themselves did when they were adolescents. One study, accordingly, found that the "youth culture" is merely a reflection of adult expectations (Elkin and Westley, 1955:680-684).

Nearly without exception, numerous studies have found an increasing age-mate orientation among adolescents, i.e., the older the adolescent the higher the peer orientation. Coleman (1961) found that when adolescents had to choose between their parents' disapproval, their teachers' disapproval, and breaking with their friend that nearly 43 per cent opted for their friends. Based on this and related findings he was led to conclude that the adolescents had created their own society.[3] In a study by Musgrove (1965:92-93), 70 per cent of nine year olds preferred the companionship of their parents to football games or picnics. At age 15, however, only 2½ per cent preferred their parents. Similarly, Bowerman and Kinch (1959:206-211) found that 87 per cent were parent oriented in the fourth grade while 32 per cent opted for their parents in the tenth grade. Neiman (1954:104-111) demonstrated that peer groups have more influence than parents in attitudes toward the feminine role. In a study of religious attitudes and behavior, Jewish teenagers were found to conform to the standards of their peers rather than their parents (Rosen, 1965). Utilizing an open-ended stimulus, Goodman (1966) found that adolescents more often think of their peers first when they are asked to whom they would like to be closer. The only study which has really attempted to broaden the scope of the analysis of peer-parent influence has been that of Brittain (1963). He found, through the use of different types of situational stimuli, that adolescents tend to avoid being different from peers, avoid separation from peers, and tend to eliminate adult-youth cross-pressures by avoiding communication with the adult world.

Though the findings of peer predominance appear to be profuse, there are notes of caution. Many of the studies present exaggerated interpretations of their findings, have been carried out with preconceived notions of peer predominance, have asked questions in ways conducive to bias, have included supportive variables to the relative exclusion of those nonsupportive, or have simply neglected several important dimensions.

---

[3] It might be noted in passing that Coleman's findings were somewhat inconsistent. Furthermore, his interpretations were exaggerated particularly when one considers that the majority of the adolescents opted for their parents. One researcher rephrased Coleman's stimulus such that it read "disapproval of friend" rather than "breaking with friend" and found that less than 20 per cent opted for peers (Epperson, 1964:93-96).

Parent Influence

If the studies on peer influence told the whole story, the "family" sociologist might well stick to childhood and marriage. Actually, however, the issue is far from cut and dried. In the first place, many of the studies already discussed contain evidence for the pervasive influence of parents. Brittain's (1963) situational dilemmas, for example, produced a parent-oriented response in the majority of cases. Of the 12 situations used, only 3 produced a peer-oriented response. Similarly, Coleman's (1961:139) study found nearly 60 per cent of the adolescents opting for their parents. As suggested in an earlier footnote, Epperson (1964) concluded that peers were a minority group relative to the influence of parents. In spite of a rather clear decline in parental influence as the adolescent became older, Bowerman and Kinch (1959) found that a high level of adjustment between parents and adolescents facilitated a high parent orientation regardless of age. Douvan and Adelson (1966:169-172) found in their study that when adults had a stake that adolescents remained firmly responsive to parental standards. In addition, it was found that adolescents rely on their parents for help and advice on "deeply involving personal problems."

Other studies have demonstrated that differing family structures, conditions and processes have an effect on adolescent behavior. In one study, it was concluded that high consensus among family members facilitated school adjustment among adolescents (Myerhoff and Larson, 1965). In a descriptive study by Slocum (1963) it was found that family culture patterns (i.e., democratic, cooperative, affectionate, and the type of discipline) varied positively with interest in school work, scholastic achievements, and participation in school activities. Cervantees (1915) was able to demonstrate a strong relationship between broken homes and the high school drop out rate. Finally, a large body of studies show a correlation between family size, among others, and adolescent perceptions and behavior (cf. Clausen, 1966; Clausen, 1965; Dager, 1964).

Again, however, though the findings of parent predominance appear to be substantial, there are many unanswered questions. In the first place, few studies of the influence of the family even bother to control for the influence of either the peer group or teachers. The study by Slocum (1963:3), for example, merely notes the possibility that the influence of the family "may be tempered by the impact of peer group standards" and then ignores the theoretical relevance of this impact in the remainder of the study. Where peer influence is controlled, the results do not present a consistent pattern. Brittain (1963), for example, concluded that parents had greater influence in areas involving futuristic implications while peers had greater influence in areas which had current implications. However, of the 12 items used, 1 had direct implications for adult roles - which course to take in school - and on this item his respondents opted for their peers. By the same token, most of the items classified as current oriented, found adolescents preferring the wishes of their parents. Actually, as Goldstein (1967:29) suggests in his critical review of the literature, there is surprisingly little research on adolescents and their family relationships.

Teacher Influence

Although the teacher participates in a major share of the child's and the adolescent's life, all studies have conclusively shown that they are perceived to have only minimal influence. Placed in relationship to parents and peers, teachers are found to have less than 4 per cent of the adolescents' preferences (cf. Coleman, 1961:5; Epperson, 1964: 93-94). Even where attempts have been made to explore the influence posture in areas that would be most appropriate for the influence of teachers they are always third in the salience hierarchy. In this study Winch (1962:197-199) found that teachers have influence in arousing interest in culture, education, intellectual pursuits, and occupations. Yet, when one looks at the literature on the influence of the school on the adolescent one obtains the impression that the school is in a position of predominant influence.

Schafer and Polk (1967:234-246), in a substantive summary and analysis of the literature on the relationship between the school and juvenile delinquency, conclude that the school itself contributes to educational failure, a perceived lack of payoff of education, a lack of commitment, and misconduct among adolescents. These reactions are seen to facilitate delinquency. In their analysis of the conditions contributing to educational failure, for example, several conditions were identified including: teacher belief in the limited potential of pupils, irrelevant instruction, inappropriate teaching methods, testing, grouping, and "tracking," inadequate compensatory and remedial education, inferior teachers and facilities in low income schools, school-community distance, and economic and racial segregation. The point of departure for our purposes is the implicit suggestion that the school can make or break the child, almost at will, regardless of either parent or peer. In light of this, how does one put together the battery of findings noted above with findings such as those of Cervantees (1965):[4]

> The Gluecks maintain that the potential delinquent can be spotted with a 90 per cent predictive reliability when he is six years old by an analysis of his family's patterns of affection, discipline, and solidarity. The present conclusion suggests that the same predictive reliability of school success or failure could be made of a child of average I.Q. on the first day of school by an analysis of the prevalence or absence of primary relations in his family background....The dropout is generally the product of a family deficient in primary relationships.

After critically reviewing the literature on education relating to low income youth, Goldstein (1967:59) suspiciously asks:

---

[4] Cervantees, "Family Background, Primary Relationships, and the High School Dropout," loc. cit.: an excellent summary of this literature may be obtained in Hyman Rodman and Paul Grams (1967:188-221).

> It would appear that much might be learned from a systematic analysis of deviant cases. Are children from low-income families who achieve appropriately in the early grades simply more intelligent, or do they come from homes that are significantly different?

Similarly, the conclusions of one family sociologist who reviewed the same literature was that an enriched learning environment in the home prior to school entrance might mitigate expensive renovative programs after the age of six. She concluded that more efforts may well be directed toward helping the family unit, per se (Chilman, 1966).

While situational factors in the school, such as those described above, can undo what the family has done or do what the family has failed to do, it is appropriate to consider whether the family or peers can undo what the school is attempting to do regardless of the methods and procedures the school employs and moreover facilitate the attainment of educational and/or work goals in spite of what the school is not doing or has not done. Few studies done on the influence of the school have controlled for the child's current situation outside the school although they often acknowledge what the child was when he first entered school. As suggested above, the school environment alone cannot account for all of the variance.

Summary

This survey of the literature has made apparent a rather serious problem: peer influence, parent influence, and the influence of the school are found in various and sundry ways one to be more salient than the other. The findings as a whole do not reflect an integrative nor complementary posture. Indeed, they portray isolated and disconnected tidbits of influence. Somehow the various hints of interrelationship among these social units in relation to the adolescent must be brought together within one conceptual shelter. The central question now becomes: What is the influence posture during adolescence? The next few pages attempt to present an answer to this question.

A Conceptual Model of Social Influence During Adolescence

The central problem of this thesis is to develop and test a model of social influence based on the developmental approach to socialization. It may be emphasized that this model is designed to be most appropriate to the period of adolescence. Even so, it is certainly applicable to childhood and preadolescence as well. Similarly, with some modifications it is appropriate for the study of social influence during adulthood. Other models used in the study of salience during adolescence will be briefly considered first. The relationship of these models to the socialization model will become clear later in this chapter.

Other Models Used in Explaining the Salience Hierarchy

1. Grade-Level Hypothesis

Basically, there are three models[5] used to explain the salience hierarchy during adolescence. The first may be referred to as the curvilinear-rejection model. Stated in its simplest form, the major hypothesis of this approach is that individuals are adult-oriented both prior to adolescence and subsequent to this period whereas during adolescence the pendulum swings radically to peers. Figure 3 illustrates this approach (Gottlieb and Ramsey, 1964:184).

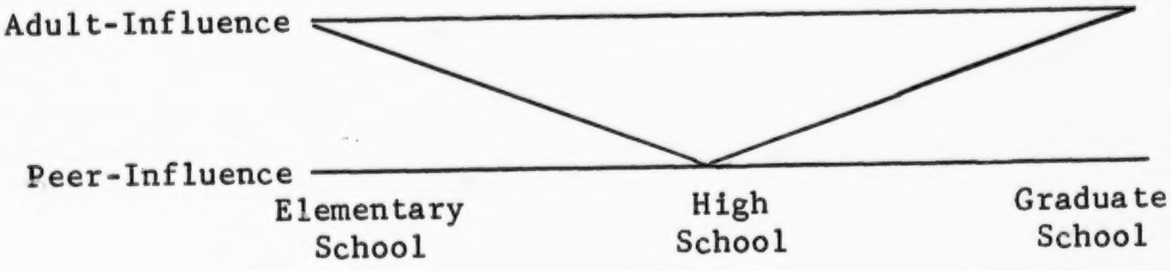


Figure 3. Age-Status and Salience Hierarchy

As indicated above, this model relates specifically to youth within the formal educational system. Students are seen to change the kinds of recognition they desire as they progress through their academic training. In this approach, adolescents are said to turn to their age-mates for several reasons: because they are expected to by parent and teacher alike; because they are forced to be together, i.e., age-segregation; and because they share a common dilemma. The common dilemma is generally described in glowing terms.

---

[5] The distinction between a hypothesis and a model must be made clear at this point. For our purposes a hypothesis is simply a statement of relationship or association among two or more variables, e.g., age-status is related to the salience hierarchy. This is referred to as a general hypothesis. As will be seen, the level of abstraction specifies the type of hypothesis to be tested. Accordingly, a specific hypothesis would specify the nature of the hypothesized relationship, e.g., the older the adolescent becomes, the higher his peer orientation. A proposition is a further abstraction specifying particular relationships for test, e.g., seventh graders will be more parent-oriented than ninth graders. A proposition is derivable from a specific hypothesis and may be given in either a research or null form.

As suggested earlier a model is an "approach." Now as to the rationale for referring to the three hypotheses as models. Each hypothesis is really a low level conceptual model. If one wished, it would be possible to specify both concepts and assumptions. At the same time, nonetheless, these models may be collapsed into a general hypothesis. Consequently, when, for example the curvilinear-rejection model is referred to as a hypothesis we are referring to the general hypothesis that age-status is related to the salience hierarchy. By the same token, when the term model is used we are referring to the body of concepts and assumptions that underlie the hypothesis.

The situation of the adolescent is one where he is neither child nor adult, bond nor free, independent nor dependent, mature nor immature. During this "betwixt and between" period, it is somehow made clear to him what he must do - become a responsible, mature man or woman, that is independent and resourceful.[6] At the same time, the adolescent is besieged with opportunities and deprivations, the latter of which mediate from demands that are ill-fitted, excessive, or minimized, and which have their roots in alien and traditional assumptions. In addition to these crucial and conflictual expectations it is implicitly recognized by adult and adolescent alike that nobody really knows for sure what to expect. An excellent source on these issues may be obtained in Keniston (1960). Being in the same "boat" ubiquitously facilitates mutual understanding, similarity of purpose, and commonality of interest. Thus, the adolescent gravitates toward his age-mates. It is with his own "kind" that the adolescent can feel a sense of power, belonging, and security.

As suggested in the review of literature earlier in this chapter this hypothesis is widely accepted and documented. Nonetheless, the curvilinear-rejection hypothesis may be questioned on several grounds. In the first place, it is questionable whether individuals do become more adult-oriented after adolescence - grade school notwithstanding. Although greater respect for one's elders may be reacquired, it seems that adults are more age-mate oriented than any other group. Furthermore, there is a hint here of a viable alternative hypothesis to that of age-mate orientation: an interaction model of social influence.[7] In other words, whatever else may be said of an individual (whether child, adolescent, or adult), he is a member of a group. Accordingly, one may speak of a normative system enforced by sanctions in interaction with one another. The adolescent is a member of competing groups (family, peer, grade). The adult is also a member of a group, i.e., he is a position occupant. In the case of an occupational group, for example, although the group has an age-range, the really important variable is the positional occupancy within the group.

Secondly, the implicit assumption that the adolescent rejects his parents is clearly an oversimplification. In many respects, the adolescent's identification with his peers is simply an expansion of his social arena to include new sources of influence. As suggested earlier, parents really expect their children to spend time with their friends. In fact, they encourage them to do so. The substance of frequent interaction and similarity of perspective or even a preference for peer associations does not in and of itself denote rejection of parents anymore than buying steak on Tuesday represents a wholesale rejection of hamburger. In other words, there are specific conditions which modify and regulate the adolescent's relative preferences. The findings of Brittain (1963), for example, provide support for this hypothesis. Similarly, the study by Bowerman and Kinch (1959), among others, demonstrates that the relationship between parent and child is an essential mediating factor in the explanation of salience. Furthermore, no study to this writer's knowledge has provided for the possibility of equal salience between parents and peers. Thus, it is appropriate to ask whether adolescents are anti-parent, a-parent, or pro-parent-peer.

---

[6] Two recent compilations of literature contain particularly relevant resources on these issues (Erickson, 1963; Herman _et al_., 1968). The developmental task assumption concerning what the adolescent must achieve before he can effectively become an adult is also widely discussed in the literature (cf. Gottlieb and Ramsey, 1964:112-125).

[7] Richard H. White (1968:23-28) effectively characterizes this approach in his article "Toward a Theory of Religious Influence."

2. Goals Hypothesis

A second hypothesis of somewhat recent origin takes as its point of departure the idea that adolescents identify with referents (social units) that they perceive as having the desire and ability to help them achieve their goals. Referents which have either ability or desire but not both are moderately identified with. Those who are perceived to have neither desire nor ability are perceived as having little or no influence (cf. Gottlieb *et al.*, 1966:1-24). This may be referred to as the *goals* hypothesis. The basic assumptions of this approach are as follows: (Gottlieb *et al.*, 1966:1-2)

a. The adolescent wishes to attain skills, goals, and roles (ends).
b. The adolescent perceives referents in terms of a certain end.
c. These referents are perceived as having differential power means (ability) and intentions (desire) to help the adolescent attain an end.
d. Adolescent goals may vary from one society to the next and within subgroupings in any particular society.
e. The adolescent is the initiator in his involvement.

In a rather sophisticated test of this hypothesis the findings were clear: the greater the level of "helping" (from *no* desire and ability to *both* desire and ability) the higher the level of involvement.

While the goals model has the ring of "middle-class-appropriateness," one must be cautious about its interpretation. It may be suggested, in the first place, that help with decisions about goals is not really a measure of *relative* influence as much as it is *relevant* influence. That is, the adolescent perceives that certain persons are available *if* needed. More important, however, is that the dimensions of ability and desire may be rather common commodities among referents in the perception of the adolescent. No attempt was made to ascertain the degree of desire or ability except in the all or none sense. Consequently, all the referent would need is a minimum of ability and a "good heart" - a well-meaning referent. The adolescent could place the guidance counselor and the blundering parent (however well-intentioned) in the same hopper with relative ease.

Equally important also is the assumption that adolescents have goals. Does the adolescent really have educational and work goals? If so, what kinds of goals are they and what effect do differing goals have on the influence posture? For example, do adults have the desire and ability to help the adolescent decide to drop out of school or to take a laboring-type job in the perception of the adolescent? It is appropriate also to ask concerning the whereabouts of the anti-goal adolescent such as those studied by Stinchcombe (1964).

The fifth assumption of this approach, i.e., the adolescent is the initiator in his involvement, is at best an oversimplification. In many respects, the adolescent has little choice in his affiliation and interaction with family and school. In this case he is not so much an initiator as he is a reactor by virtue of his forced membership.

Finally, it may be noted that the study by Gottlieb et al. (1966), has not yet attempted to explore the differences between parents, best friends, and teachers in terms of their separate and distinctive ability and desire in helping the adolescent obtain his goals.[8]

3. Situational Hypothesis

Perhaps the most productive of the three hypotheses is the situational explanation of salience which is most directly related to the work of Brittain (1963). In this case, the adolescent is said to follow the wishes of his parents rather than those of his peers when the context requires decisions which have futuristic implications. Conversely, when the decisions involved current status and identity needs the adolescents opted for their own kind. The six central findings of Brittain's study appear below.

a. The adolescent perceives peers and parents as competent guides in different areas of judgment.

b. The adolescent seeks to avoid being noticeably different from peers.

c. The adolescent seeks to avoid separation from friends.

d. The adolescent tends to opt for parents or peers on the basis of perceived similarity in perspective.

e. When the adolescent opted for his peers it was easier than when he opted for his parents.

f. When adolescents perceived parent-peer-cross-pressures they elected to avoid communication with their parents.

---

[8] This information was obtained in their study. However, it has not yet been reported to the writer's knowledge.

The central issue to be underlined in each of these findings is that they were obtained through the use of hypothetical situations in which a dilemma was created. The dilemma consisted of a clear case of parent-peer cross-pressure. Thus, the parents were pressuring the adolescent to do one thing while his best friends were pressuring him to do the opposite. It was up to the adolescent to decide which he would do.

There are likewise several problems with the situational approach to the explanation of salience. Firstly, even though the situations used were highly realistic and relevant it must be remembered that they were hypothetical. Consequently, the possibility exists that what the adolescent thought he would do might not be what he would actually do had the situation really happened. Secondly, any given situation usually involves more than the divergent wishes of parents and friends. Nonetheless, the utility of this research device lies in its ability to help the adolescent organize his perceptions of the influence posture into meaningful entity. The extent to which such situational dilemmas approximate reality will be a measure of their validity.

The Relationship Hypothesis

Although it is clear that each of the above hypotheses is more complementary than contradictory, they have together (and separately) failed to identify an important element in the measurement of salience. This missing dimension, moreover, provides a conceptual shelter that has greater explanatory power. We shall refer to this as the relationship model.

The emphasis of this approach is not upon whether the adolescent has ends and selects his referents accordingly, nor on his particular age-level and its consequences (though both are important), but on the relationship the adolescent has with his reference set in and of itself. Is the relationship satisfying? Does the nature of one relationship e.g., adolescent-parent, have implications for another relationship, e.g., adolescent-best friend? Are there situations or conditions under which the parent-adolescent relationship has greater importance than the adolescent-best friend relationship and vice versa? If so, what are the mediating factors? In essence: What value can be attached to a relationship and does this value change under given circumstances?

When one reconsiders the studies reported above in this light, some striking similarities appear. In the case of peer influence, adolescents who opted for their peers did so because of what they obtained by doing so or because of what they would lose by not doing so. Similarly, studies of parental influence found that adolescents who were parent-oriented were getting something particular from the relationship. Accordingly, when an adolescent identifies with a referent who he perceives to be able and willing to help him obtain ends there is a payoff. Although the profit margin (relative amount of reward over cost) may be small, as may be the case in opting for parents where the cross-pressures are severe, the option taken represents the adolescent's perception of greatest gain.[9] In other words, the adolescent-referent relationship becomes an organizing principle for explaining the salience hierarchy.

In its simplest form, this model states that the purpose, type, and the quality of the relationship that the adolescent has with a given social unit is essential in understanding and explaining the structure and process of social influence during adolescence. The purpose or nature of the relationship includes two basic dimensions: instrumental and expressive. The instrumental dimension refers to a relationship where the emphasis is upon acquiring current or future role items.[10] Such a relationship is geared toward getting things done. In Parson's (1955:45-46) terms, it is a goal-oriented relationship. The expressive dimension, on the other hand, corresponds to a relationship emphasizing emotional support, understanding and affection.

We will define four types of relationships: formal, informal, vertical, and horizontal. For our purposes, a formal relationship is one that is based on the interconnection among statuses in a formal group. Conversely, an informal relationship is one that is based on some degree of intimacy and openness among persons within an informal group. A vertical relationship shall be taken to mean one involving some degree of deference, respect, or obedience. Where the relationship involves commonality, equality, and mutuality, it shall be referred to as a horizontal relationship. The difference between the latter two dimensions is primarily a function of either the age or status differential (whichever is appropriate) though it also involves skills, experience and idiosyncracy credit. The relationship model is schematically presented below. The numbers in each cell refer respectively to the row and column corresponding to a given cell. Cell 41 reflects most nearly the adolescent's relationship with his best friends. Cell 12 corresponds to the adolescent's relationship with his teachers. Similarly, cell 11 most nearly fits the parent-adolescent relationship. Indeed, this cell corresponds to an underlying assumption held in nearly all studies of the salience hierarchy among adolescents, e.g., that parents are rejected because they characterize a disparate and distant culture. Relationships are personal only to the extent that the requirements of the position specify. Cell 31, however, is yet to be explored in relation to the salience hierarchy. It is here that the particular quality of the parent-adolescent

---

[9] The cost of a particular course of action is the equivalent of the foregone value of an alternative, a familiar economic assumption. The formula is presented in Homans (1958:597-606). One must be cautious, however, in applying an exchange model to the approach used here. The adolescent doesn't think only of the cost and/or reward to himself. He also considers the cost in terms of his relationship, its nature and type.

[10] The concept of "role items" refers to aspects of roles, role knowledge, skills, etc., which are to be learned in preparation for role-playing. The concept was developed by Jacobsen (1968:3-7).

Type of Relationship	Purpose of Relationship	
	Expressive	Instrumental
Formal-Vertical	11	12
Formal-Horizontal	21	22
Informal-Vertical	31	32
Informal-Horizontal	41	42

Figure 4. The Relationship Model

relationship may be introduced. The emphasis is upon personal and intimate interaction rather than status differentials. In a sense, cell 31 represents a horizontal relationship mediated by the age differential. Cell 32 may refer to either parents or teachers. These are parents who have an experiential awareness of the job market and the requirements of the adult world in general. When the adolescent perceives that his decisions have something to do with his future he may be expected to turn to those who live and participate in the adult world. The key to parental influence in this area is whether they have the desire and ability to help the adolescent. In terms of teachers, it is here that the particular quality of the teacher-adolescent relationship may be introduced.[11]

To be sure, instrumental and expressive relationships are not mutually exclusive. However, where one is emphasized the other is a secondary though a supportive aspect of the influence. For example, although an adolescent learns, acquires goals, and performs certain tasks in the parent-peer context, he does so in a relationship that is predominantly emotive in character. Similarly, although an adolescent may have an expressive relationship with a teacher, the primary emphasis is instrumental.

Now, let us be clear as to how the relationship model relates to the prediction of the salience hierarchy during adolescence. It will be recalled that figure 2 details a number of elements which ought to be considered in any assessment of the influence of a reference set. These are inclusive factors in a general model of socialization. The model presented in the previous few pages of this chapter is an emergent model. That is, it is a specific conceptual device which corresponds to a blown-up or magnified "piece" of the socialization model. The type and purpose of relationship, then, is simply a conceptual tool that helps portray the interconnection among the three primary sources of influence during adolescence: parents, best friends, and teachers. If teachers and parents are off in "left field," as much of the research suggests, this model locates them in the formal, vertical cells. Accordingly, there is a gulf fixed between adult and adolescent. However, the point at which this approach becomes empirically and theoretically relevant is the hypothesis that the quality of the relationship is an essential predictor of salience. It will be helpful at this point to refer to the schematic presentation in figure 5. As can be seen, the determination of the relative influence of a reference set includes: (a) the purpose and type of relationship, (b) the quality of the relationship, (c) the effect of mediating factors, and (d) the nature of the situation. This diagram corresponds very closely to the general model of socialization. The type and purpose of the relationship locates a given reference set in the influence posture as it relates to the influence of the adolescent. The quality of the relationship connotes such factors as understanding, interest and concern in adolescent affairs, communication, tension, and attraction. The quality of the relationship is seen as a more efficient predictor of the relative influence of a reference set than such factors as the type of structure, the age-sex composition, or the time period. The latter are seen as mediating factors. Though not directly measurable, the influence of personality must be considered as the final filtering unit. The situation in figure 5 corresponds to the situation identified in figure 1, i.e., the individual is a positional occupant in a particular situation. The situation, itself, must be considered in the determinations of the influence of a given reference set.

---

[11] Cells 21, 22, and 42 represent particular relationship forms that will not be considered in this thesis. Subsequent study of organized school club membership (cell 21), student government membership (cell 22), and gangs formed for specific purposes (cell 42) is urged. It must be remembered, however, that the focus cannot be upon isolated research of each facet but upon the interpenetration of these various social units - the influence posture.

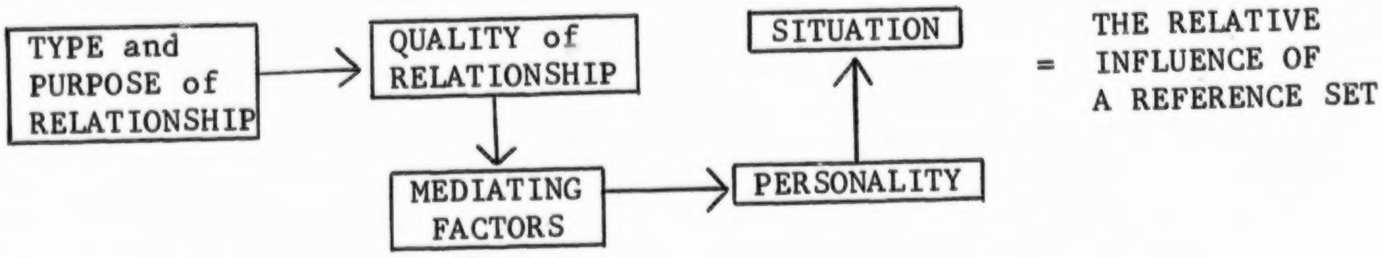

TYPE and PURPOSE of RELATIONSHIP
QUALITY of RELATIONSHIP
SITUATION
=
THE RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF A REFERENCE SET
MEDIATING FACTORS
PERSONALITY

Figure 5. Relationship Model and Salience

The implicit and explicit assumptions of this approach may now be listed.

1. The adolescent is a member of several groups either by choice or proscription.

2. The adolescent perceives that these groups have different purposes and are of different types.

3. The adolescent has socioemotional needs.

4. The adolescent perceives that there are certain role items, current and future, to be acquired.

5. The adolescent in interacting with referents meets socioemotional needs and acquires current and future role items.

6. The salience hierarchy is mediated by the quality of the adolescent's relationship, other mediating factors, and the type of situation.

Hypothesis for Test

The test of the theoretical approach outlined will be limited in this report to problems that are directly related to the salience hierarchy. The ramifications of a full-blown analysis of the relative effect of the school and teachers on the salience hierarchy mitigates against consideration in this report.[12] The conditions regulating and mediating the relative parent and best friend perceptions among adolescents will be emphasized.[13]

---

[12] It was originally planned that this facet of the influence posture would be fully explored. Several considerations led the writer to the decision not to include the influence of teachers. In the first place, consistent with our model, teachers were found to have little influence in the socioemotional world of the adolescent. They were consistently at the bottom of the salience hierarchy when placed in the parent-peer-teacher perspective. Secondly, the relative salience of parents and peers developed into a considerably complex and forbidding social phenomenon. To do justice to both relationships (parent-peer and parent-peer-teacher) would have led the writer far beyond the reasonable limitations of this thesis. Consequently, the exploration of the quality of the teacher-student relationship, the helping potential of teachers, the "areas" of greatest salience, the effect of grades, adolescent school orientation, curriculum relevance, equality of education opportunity, and labeling, will not be considered.

[13] It may be noted that this study focuses on the adolescent's relationships with his best friends rather than peers in general. It is assumed that the stimulus "best friends" calls forth a group of persons (2 or more) who the adolescent considers himself very close to. Neither the number nor the sex of best friends is considered in this study as these relationships are voluntary. Whether the stimulus "best friends" elicits a group of boys or a group of girls is immaterial. The issue is that these are simply best friends. This stimulus is comparable to the others given - "most of your teachers," and "mother" and "father." The sex of the parent is important because these relationships are involuntary and primarily expressive. The adolescent's relationship with his teachers is generally not on an individual basis, as in the family, and primarily instrumental. In addition, it may be emphasized that it is unnecessary to ascertain the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his best friends. A high quality relationship may be assumed. This assumption was tested in the pilot study and conclusively confirmed.

General Hypotheses

The test of the relationship model is organized in terms of two general considerations. First, it is asked if the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship really makes a difference in the adolescent's life space. Will the behavior and preference patterns of youth be altered by the type of relationship the adolescent sustains with his parents? This general research question allows the statement of a general hypothesis.

Hypothesis One: The parent-adolescent relationship is related to the salience hierarchy among youth.

The second general research question involves the relationship of this general hypothesis to alternative explanations of salience. Will the demonstrated association between grade-level and peer-orientation sustain once the parent-adolescent relationship is introduced as a control variable? Will the perceived ability and desire of referents to help in decisions about job and school retain its explanatory power? Will the effect of the type of situation be altered when the parent-adolescent relationship is considered? The interconnection of these four approaches (grade-level, help-mate, situation, and quality of relationship) in the explanation of salience during adolescence is the cornerstone of this report. It is contended that the knowledge of the quality of the relationship will improve the prediction of salience while reducing the efficiency of other predictors. This leads to the second general hypothesis.

Hypothesis Two: The association between the Parent-Adolescent relationship and the salience hierarchy among youth will persist when alternative explanations are considered.

The general assumption that the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is an essential facet of the influence posture during adolescence is hitherto unexplored. Consequently, this analysis is directed toward a rigorous test of this assumption. The next section outlines the specific hypotheses for test and the data analysis procedures.

Specific Hypotheses

The specific hypotheses outlined below rely heavily upon the theoretical framework outlined previously. It is not considered necessary to refer to the appropriate literature at this point other than at a bibliographical level.

As has been seen, the findings and consequent implications of previous research cannot be overlooked. Therefore, this study tests several hypotheses which are directly derivable from other studies. The unique departure in this study is to test each of these hypotheses within the same conceptual shelter - within the conceptual confines of the relationship model. Thus, this study demands much more of previous formulations. It not only more rigorously tests previous hypotheses, it also tests each hypothesis in relationship to other plausible hypotheses. The hypotheses are presented in two categories: those relating to zero order association and those relating to third order association. In addition, they are divided in terms of their relationship to previous studies and the theoretical framework followed in this study. Detailed discussion of each hypothesis will be reserved for the appropriate data analysis section.

Specific Hypotheses: Zero Order Association

Related to previous literature

Hyp: 1 The higher the grade-level, the lower the parent-orientation (cf. Coleman, 1961; Musgrove, 1965; and Bowerman and Kinch, 1959).

Hyp: 2 The higher the perceived helping potential of a referent, the higher the referent-orientation (cf. Gottlieb et al., 1966).

Hyp: 3 Across hypothetical situations, choice patterns will vary systematically with the hierarchical preferences of youth (Brittain, 1963).

Related to theoretical frame of reference

Hyp: 4 The higher the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship, the higher the parent orientation.

Hyp: 5 Females will be more parent-oriented than males.

Hyp: 6 The higher the social class level, the higher the parent-orientation.

Specific Hypotheses: Third Order Associations

Related to theoretical frame of reference

Hyp: 7 The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is a more efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy than grade-level, sex, social class, type of situation, and the combined helping potential of referent.

Methods

The data to be presented in this report were taken from a much larger study conducted by the author on the relationship between aspects of socialization and adolescent role-conceptions and behavior. Since the methods used in the study itself are appropriately related to this report, this section describes the larger study.

Selection of Community

Three basic considerations went into the selection of the community. In the first place, an area was sought that had not been heavily researched. Most of the larger metropolitan areas in Oregon have been besieged with research to the point of saturation. Since one of the procedures to be used in the collection of data was mail-in questionnaires, it was deemed necessary to select a community where research was unique rather than characteristic. The second consideration was that the occupational distribution of the community be fairly evenly distributed between white and blue-collar works. Thirdly, an area was sought with a population large enough to accommodate an adequate sample to test the hypotheses. These considerations first led the writer to a city in southern Oregon. After several letters with the appropriate personnel, however, it was decided not to conduct the study there. The second choice, Valleyville, Oregon (the pseudonym selected), became the site of the study. The criteria noted above were ably met in this community.

In 1960, Valleyville had a population of 11,467. This represented a 36 per cent increase over 1950. The median education for males over 25 years of age was 11.9 years in 1960. Approximately 57 per cent of the employed males over age 14 were employed in blue-collar occupations.

Population for Study

The study was designed and the data collection completed between June, 1967 and January, 1968. The data gathering phase took place during the first part of November. The population was defined as (a) all adolescents who had finished the sixth grade but who had not yet graduated from high school, and (b) their parents. It was decided that the sample drawn from this population should provide an optimum of information with a minimum of expense. Utilizing this criterion, a non-random sample of all seventh, ninth, and twelfth grade students who attended (adolescents not in school were excluded) the Valleyville public schools was chosen.

The seventh, ninth and twelfth grades were selected for two basic reasons. In the first place, the seventh grade constitutes a transition from preadolescence into adolescence. Similarly, the twelfth grade is generally seen as the initial confrontation with the world of the young adult. In a sense, also, these two grades represent, respectively, the beginning of adolescence and the end of compulsory adult control. The ninth grade most nearly approximates the middle of the "settling-in" process during adolescence. The second reason relates to the general notion of the demonstrated relationship between increasing peer orientation the older the adolescent becomes. These three grades, then, are reasonable slicing points for an efficient test of the hypotheses to be tested in this study.

The selection of a non-random sample lessened the impact of the study on the participating schools while at the same time provided a substantial N within each grade category. The collection of data from parents also mitigated against the use of a random sample. Although not relevant to this report, one of the most serious problems in the study of salience during adolescence is that comparable information to that obtained from teenage respondents has not been sought from their parents. Consequently, it was determined that an intense effort would be made to obtain data from parents concerning their perceptions of the parent-adolescent relationship, circumstances and frequency of interaction with their children, family structure, and the influence they perceived themselves to have, as well as their perceptions of the school and peer influence.[14] Accordingly, the parents of all youth in the sample were identified and invited by letter to participate in the study.

At the time of the study, there were 1,690 students enrolled in the three grades. These students were members of 1,445 family units, 1,207 of which had one child in the sample, 223 had two children in the sample, and 15 had three or more children in the sample. As can be seen from the chart below, the final sample size included 1,558 students which were members of 1,338 family units.

	Student Enrollment	Family Units
Total student enrollment and the number of family units which they represented	1,690	1,445
Number of students absent on the days of the study and the number of family units which the absent students represented	132	107
Final sample size	1,558	1,338

Research Instruments

As stated earlier, the choice of a particular method of data collection is ultimately a matter of priorities rather than a "tight" rationale. This is particularly true in the choice of methods (questionnaire or interview) and the choice of questions (open or closed). It may be generally said that interviews are used when the sample is small and the study is primarily exploratory in perspective. Exploratory studies that utilize somewhat larger samples generally opt for open-ended questionnaires. The larger the study becomes, the more important predictive (rather than exploratory) research models become. In the latter case, the closed questionnaire is generally the mode with only scattered open-ended questions used for the purpose of clarification. In other words, the size of the sample and the type of study (whether exploratory or predictive) are the basic factors to be considered in the selection and development of instruments. An excellent annotated bibliography is available concerning these and related issues (cf. Lane et al., 1966). Given the above considerations, a closed or forced choice questionnaire was chosen for the collection of data. This choice is deemed appropriate for the following reasons.

---

[14] Most studies of the family unit treat data from one respondent as though it represents responses from all members of the family. On issues such as those suggested above, however, it is particularly crucial to measure relative consensus and dissensus among family members.

No apology or justification need be made for the exclusion of parental data from this report. The larger study was carried out without the theoretical and empirical limitations of thesis research. It was designed to be a full-scale analysis of socialization during adolescence. In considerable contrast to this approach, thesis research must be delimited to a specific problem which can be handled within the boundaries of reasonable brevity.

1. The study is the beneficiary of a large body of exploratory research. Thus, it was possible to develop a questionnaire with a predictive character.
2. Since the purpose of this study is to pull together many diverse aspects of previous research and to establish the relationship among these disparate elements it was necessary to prepare an unusually long instrument. To have used any other technique would have resulted in an excessive time demand on student, parent, and school alike.
3. The third factor is the size of the sample. In order to adequately test the hypotheses, a substantial sample had to be obtained.
4. The final factor, while a theoretical "unmentionable," is the cost of conducting the research. Any approach other than that used would have limited the success of the study.

Three questionnaires were developed - one for each parent, and one for children between the ages of 11-12 (roughly the 7th grade) and 18-19 (roughly the 12th grade). All three questionnaires were prepared in rough form and revised in consultation with individuals more skilled than the writer in the wording of questions. The students' questionnaire was then multilithed and pretested among more than 100 students from two schools in Eugene, Oregon (the pretest included grades 7, 9, and 12).[15] The parent questionnaires were dittoed and discriminately distributed to both high status and low status parents. Approximately 20 were distributed. Based on a content analysis of the responses obtained, and an interview with approximately 15 senior high school students, the instruments were again revised into the form utilized in the study in Valleyville.

---

[15] It may be noted that the student questionnaire required a different amount of time to complete for twelfth graders than it did for seventh graders. Among the twelfth graders, the pretest instrument took about 50 minutes for the faster students while the slower ones required nearly 90 minutes. Ninth graders completed the questionnaire within a 54-62 minute period. Among the seventh graders, 50 per cent completed them within one hour and 40 minutes. The seventh and ninth graders completed an instrument 3 pages shorter than the one the twelfth graders completed. The section removed represented an overly ambiguous attempt to measure influence without providing a referent.

The final draft of the students' questionnaire (provided in Appendix A) contained 16 pages. It was printed using the off-set printing process on white bond paper. The fathers' questionnaire contained 14 pages and was printed on green bond while the mothers' questionnaire was printed on pink bond and contained 15 pages. The colors were designed to help the respondents rapidly distinguish the questionnaires.

In its final form, each of the three questionnaires was broadly conceived to measure several aspects of socialization and its relationship to adolescent role-conceptions and behavior. The questionnaires included a number of standard background variables, educational and occupational aspirations and expectations, evaluations of both school and teachers, questions concerning the adolescent's relationship with his mother and father, questions designed to measure the adolescent's relative preferences among parents, peers, and teachers given several distinctive stimuli, questions on self-esteem, a battery of questions on communication between parent and adolescent, a series of role-item stimuli relating to future conceptions of jobs, school and family as well as current role-item stimuli concerning the student, peer, and family role. Although each contains a great deal of exploratory stimuli, the meat of the students' questionnaire is based on the theoretical perspective previously outlined. The questionnaires were specifically developed to test the central assumptions of the relationship model.

Data Collection Procedures

A research design was set up to accommodate the collection of data from both adolescents and their parents that would assure an optimum degree of success at minimal cost. It was immediately determined that the large N needed would mitigate against the use of interviews and personal contacts of any kind. In consequence, the mass administration of a precoded, pretested paper and pencil test was chosen. Similarly, it was decided that a mail-in questionnaire would be the most appropriate means of obtaining data from the parents. As the percentage of return on mail-in questionnaires has been a persistent problem in research, every effort was made to create a design that would obtain a maximum return (cf. Lane et al., 1966). Two weeks prior to the week of the study five students from Valleyville High School were hired to address and personally affix a postage stamp to each letter to be mailed to the parents of students in the sample. It was hoped that by hand stamping and writing the address in longhand that the letters would have a more personalized impression. They also folded the letters, stuffed and sealed the envelopes. The take-home packets were prepared by ten students hired from the university the night before the first administration.

The day prior to the administration at a given school a personal letter of introduction was mailed to each parental unit indicating that one or more of their children would be participating in a study and that their child would be bringing home a questionnaire for each parent to complete and mail in. The questionnaires were administered the next day. At the time of the administration, each student received a take-home packet that included a questionnaire for each parent, a letter of introduction with instructions, and a post-paid return envelope. The day following each administration, a follow-up letter was mailed to each parent thanking them for their participation in the study and encouraging them to complete the questionnaires at their earliest convenience. The second and final follow-up letter was mailed 1½ weeks after the mailing of the first letter.

Data Preparation

Shortly after the final administration, the yellow identification sheets and questionnaires were sorted into family units and identical identification numbers were assigned. The yellow sheets containing the names of siblings were then destroyed.

The questionnaires were prepared, for the most part, in a precoded form. Consequently, much of the coding process involved the simple transfer of the respondent's answer to the digatek coding form. Some questions, however, required data reduction procedures. For this purpose, a set of coding instructions was prepared for each questionnaire. Six coders were hired and given intensive instructions. All were considered highly competent. Where problems occurred in the coding process, these were referred to the writer and corrected once daily.

A secondary coding procedure was followed to insure that the coding was being done as accurately as possible. After the questionnaires were all coded the first time, the six coders were divided into three groups. Each group checked the accuracy of the first code for questionnaires that had been coded by a coder of one of the other groups. One coder in the group ascertained the proper code in the questionnaire and the other checked to see if the code on the digatek coding form was the same. If the error was a mistake it was corrected. If the error was a possible error in judgment the discrepancy was resolved by the investigator. It was found that the original code was 99 per cent accurate.

Statistical Procedures

The analysis of percentage differences forms the basic approach to the data. The relationship between X and Y is considered first. A third variable, Z, and when necessary additional variables, will be introduced to observe the effect that these variables have on the original X-Y relationship. In addition to the analysis of percentage differences, however, several statistical procedures will be used to provide a more efficient test of the hypotheses. Basically, four techniques are used: gamma - a proportionate reduction in error measure of association; Z - a test of significance appropriate to gamma; test factor standardization - an average partial association technique which permits the control of one or more test variables (Z, T, U, etc.); and a method for assessing three-factor interaction among partial associations. The relevance of each of these methods may be briefly discussed.

There are several measures of association appropriate to nonparametric data including lambda, Yule's Q, phi, and gamma, among others. Yule's Q and phi are limited to four-fold contingency tables. Lambda permits the prediction of categories for ij contingency tables. Gamma, however, has been chosen for this thesis because: (a) it can handle ij tables; and (b) it predicts order. In addition, gamma can be interpreted as a proportionate reduction in error which is similar to the interpretation of variance. These issues are fully discussed in a recent publication by Costner (1965).

The test of significance debate is an important one but irrelevant to this study (cf. Merton et al., 1957:302). The debate really relates to the purpose and interpretation of the test. In this study the usage of a test of significance is appropriate for two reasons: (a) to test the significance of the difference among partial associations - the test for interaction (discussed later); and (b) there is a sociological function served in providing a test for subsequent comparison and replication - the test of significance appropriate to gamma. It may be emphasized, nonetheless, that the normal use of significance tests is inappropriate to the data used herein in that this study is based on a non-random sample and generalization to the larger population is inappropriate. In keeping with the assumptions underlying its use, a test of significance will be used to evaluate whether an observed gamma association is due to sample variation. The procedure is described in Freeman (1965:162-175).

The test factor standardization technique is preferred to other partial association techniques for several reasons. In the first place, where there are several categories in both the predictor and dependent variable, and a test variable is introduced which also has several categories, the number of partial associations created is extremely large. For example, if the writer wished to control on three test variables (Z, T, and U), all of which are trichotomized, 27 partial associations would be obtained. To analyze 27 separate tables is cumbersome. Secondly, and more important, the problem created by many partial associations is a touchy issue in terms of interpretation. It is difficult to make a clear statement about whether the original relationship has been reduced or to stipulate the degree to which it has been reduced. The test factor standardization technique is described in Rosenberg (1962: 53-61) and more recently in Anderson and Zelditch (1968:175-182).

However, all is not a bed of roses. By averaging the effect of a test variable such as sex, it is possible to hide distinctive associations for specific partial tables. While sex may have no average effect on the zero order relationship between grade level and parental understanding, the relative differences between males and females in the seventh, ninth, and twelfth grades may vary considerably. This problem is one of interaction and requires the specification of the relationship among the partials. A method has been developed to test the significance of interaction (cf. Goodman, 1964:319-347). A correlation is computed for each partial table and a test is made to ascertain whether the associations among the partials are significantly different. If they are not, the average partial correlation (standardization) may be appropriately computed to determine whether the test variable(s) reduces the original zero order relationship. The best treatment to date of the problem of interaction and the use of test factor standardization may be found in the book by Anderson and Zelditch (1968:175-182).

The next part of this report presents the findings obtained.

Chapter 2

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Description of Sample

Table 1 presents the percentage distributions for ten standard background variables. As might be expected the sex ratio would approximate equality if computed and the lower grades are larger in size than the twelfth grade. It may be noted that the age distribution is non-random since specific grade-levels were explored to the exclusion of others. For this reason, grade-level is used as a primary predictor variable rather than age-level.

The data presented for social class (i.e., ISP - education, and occupation), effectively illustrates a careless oversight on the part of this researcher. It was assumed, however naively, that this data could be obtained from the father of the adolescent rather than from the adolescent himself since the father would fill out a questionnaire specifically prepared for him. Unfortunately, only 592 questionnaires were received from the fathers. In consequence, information on educational and occupational levels among the fathers is limited to the number of questionnaires received. The social class measure utilized throughout this study is based on the education and occupation of the father. This technique was developed by Hollingshead (1957) and is referred to as the "Index of Social Position." Social class categories I and II as well as IV and V have been collapsed to insure adequate cell entires necessary to the numerous cross-classifications pursued in this analysis.

One of the more surprising findings is evidently that of the size of the family. More than half of the adolescents were members of families with four or more children. This finding probably corresponds to the over-representation in social class categories IV and V.

Before proceeding to an intensive analysis of the findings relating to the salience hierarchy, it is important to recall the size of the community studied. In many respects, Valleyville cannot be classed as either an urbanized or urbanizing community. As such, it lacks the so-called impersonal character of the large metropolis. A community of 11,000 people enables the establishment and maintenance of certain relationship ties which are sometimes hindered in larger urban areas. Whatever the merits of this perspective, however, it is asserted in this thesis that it is not the character of the community that facilitates the explanation of the salience hierarchy. It is, instead, the type of the relationship between the adolescent and his reference sets. Therefore, although the findings are limited to the population studied they are by no means irrelevant to either other studies or other urban areas.

Table 1 Description of Sample

		N[a]	Per Cent
Sex:	Males	(788)	50.8
	Females	(763)	49.2
Grade-level:	Seventh	(603)	38.9
	Ninth	(545)	35.1
	Twelfth	(403)	26.0
Age of Adolescents:	18 yrs or older	(64)	4.1
	17 yrs old	(330)	21.3
	16 " "	(16)	1.0
	15 " "	(109)	7.0
	14 " "	(431)	27.8
	13 " "	(143)	9.2
	12 yrs or less	(458)	29.6
Index of Social Position:[b]	I and II	(97)	15.7
	III	(156)	25.3
	IV and V	(364)	59.0
Father's Education:[b]	16 yrs or more	(125)	19.5
	14 yrs	(129)	20.1
	12 "	(202)	31.5
	11 yrs or less	(186)	29.0
Father's Occupation:[b]	Major Professional	(50)	7.9
	Minor Professional	(58)	9.2
	Lesser Professional	(142)	22.6
	Clerical	(115)	18.3
	Skilled	(128)	20.3
	Semi-skilled	(99)	15.7
	Unskilled	(28)	4.5
Family size:	1-3 children	(766)	49.4
	4 or more children	(785)	50.6

Continued on next page

Table 1 (cont'd.)

		N[a]	Per Cent
Living Arrangement:	Lives with mother and father	(1228)	79.4
	Mother only	(118)	7.6
	Father only	(13)	.8
	Mother and stepfather	(122)	7.9
	Father and stepmother	(26)	1.7
	Foster parents	(5)	.3
	Other	(34)	2.2
Birth Order:	Only child	(43)	2.8
	First born	(434)	28.2
	Middle born	(614)	40.0
	Youngest	(186)	29.0
Sex Distribution:	Only child	(43)	2.8
	All girls	(158)	10.2
	All boys	(175)	11.3
	Mixed	(1174)	75.8

[a] N=1551. It was necessary to destroy 4 questionnaires.

[b] The measure of social class used in this study is based on the education and occupation of the father. Thw "two-factor index" or the "Index of Social Position" and the occupational categories were first developed by Hollingshead (1957). No answers are excluded in the computation of the Index of Social Position (ISP). It will be remembered that only 592 usable questionnaires were received from the fathers; consequently, information on social class, father's occupation, and father's education is limited to the number of questionnaires received. In addition, it may be noted, that the total N is greater than 592 as 58 of the fathers had more than one child in the sample.

The findings in this community must remain suggestive of needed research in other communities.

The Salience Hierarchy

Measurement

In the remainder of this report the concept of "salience hierarchy" will refer to the hierarchical pattern of influence between parents and best friends as perceived by adolescents. The questionnaire items listed below were specifically designed to measure whether an adolescent is parent-oriented, best friend-oriented, or parent/best friend-oriented. In the latter case, the adolescent would see no need to differentiate between the importance and/or influence of parents and best friends. It may be noted that this is the first time, to the writer's knowledge, that any attempt has been made to allow the adolescent to opt for both his parents and best friends. The exact manner in which these items were presented to the respondent may be seen in Appendix C in the student questionnaire.

ITEMS USED TO MEASURE SALIENCE HIERARCHY BETWEEN PARENTS AND BEST FRIENDS

For each of the following items 3 alternative choices were provided: Parents, Best Friends, and Both about the same.

1. Who best understands your problems -
2. Who is most willing to talk with you when you have a problem -
3. Who is most interested in the things you like to do -
4. Who best knows your school subjects -
5. Who best helps you understand the school lessons -
6. Who is most difficult to talk with about things that trouble you -
7. Who most often acts as if they like you -
8. Who do you like the best -
9. Who tries the hardest to help you when you have a problem -
10. Who is it the easiest to talk to -
11. Who would you most like to get "closer to" -
12. Who has the most influence on you -
13. Who has the most control over you -
14. When you are trying to make up your mind about something important, whose ideas do you pay the most attention to?
15. Generally, with which one of the following do you most often discuss things that are difficult for you to talk about?

The hierarchical clustering technique (cf. Johnson, 1967) was utilized to ascertain the empirical similarity among the items. The particular utility of the clustering technique for the purposes of this study is that it identifies those items which are most efficient in measuring areas where adolescents are primarily parent-oriented, parent/best friend-oriented, or best friend-oriented. The frequency distributions for each of the items are presented below to illustrate the empirical similarities that characterize each of the clusters identified by the "hierarchical clustering technique."

			P*	P/BF*	BF*
Item	1	Best understanding	769	506	253
	2	Most willing to talk	776	431	321
	4	Best knowledge	352	928	241
	10	Ease of communication	368	919	234
	12	Most influence	949	341	241
	13	Most control	1346	85	85

*P = Parent-oriented, P/BF = Parent/Best Friend-oriented, BF = Best Friend-oriented responses.

As can be seen above, in the perceptual world of the adolescent, influence and control are of similar social psychological characters. Similarly, understanding and a willingness to talk seems to provoke a wider distribution of responses, the latter commanding a slightly greater orientation toward best friends. Knowledge and ease of communication are areas in which the adolescent finds the difference of influence and orientation between parent and best friend less meaningful.

The salience hierarchy index was created by summing the total response on the five items (items 1, 2, 4, 10, and 13) for each individual and dividing that total by 5 to obtain the mean response for each individual. The mean response was then repunched. The following results were obtained.

Mean Response	Salience Hierarchy	N	%
Between -			
1.00 - 1.667	Parent	549	35.5
1.668 - 2.334	Parent/Best Friend	608	39.3
2.335 - 3.00	Best Friend	389	25.1
		1546	99.9

It is clear that the majority of youth are pro-parent (parent and parent/best friend) in their orientations. Little more than 25 per cent of the adolescents assign priority to their best friends. Similarly, the introduction of a "both parent and best friend" alternative is demonstrated to be an important element in the measurement of the hierarchical preferences among youth.

The next section presents the zero order relationships between grade level, sex, social class, parent adolescent affect, reference set help, situation effect, and the salience hierarchy.

Zero Order Relationships

1. Sex, Social Class, Grade-level

Table 2 enables the test of hypothesis one: the higher the grade-level, the lower the parent orientation. As can be seen from the table and consistent with a large body of literature (cf. Coleman, 1961; Musgrove, 1965; Bowerman and Kinch, 1959), this hypothesis is strongly supported in this study. Seventh graders are substantially more parent oriented than are twelfth graders (52.7 versus 20.9 per cent). Similarly, 41.9 per cent of the twelfth graders are oriented to their best friends while only 11.0 per cent of the seventh graders opt for their best friends. In both cases, ninth graders are less parent oriented and more oriented to their best friends than are seventh graders. Indeed, although there is a three-year span between the ninth and the twelfth graders (there is but a two-year span between ninth and seventh graders) they are closer proportionately to the orientations of twelfth graders than they are seventh graders suggesting that the peer orientation is more quickly acquired in the early years of adolescence.

The middle category - Parent/Best Friend oriented - effectively documents the importance of allowing the adolescent to choose both his parents and best friends without wrestling with priorities and preferences. Previous empirical efforts have simply presented forced choice dichotomies. As can be seen, 36 per cent of the seventh graders and 37 per cent of the twelfth graders see no need to differentiate between their parents and best friends. A slightly greater proportion of ninth graders chose this category. Seventh graders probably choose their parents over the "both" possibility because they have not had the opportunity to establish close friendships. Ninth graders may be expected to more often choose both their parents and best friends because they had had the opportunity to develop more intense friendships among members of their cohorts. Considering the empirical impact of the "parent-youth conflict" literature, it is noteworthy that nearly 72 per cent of the ninth graders are favorable to their parents - less than 29 per cent are unfavorable. The utility of this dimension is apparent.

Table 3 tests hypothesis 5: females will be more parent oriented than males. Although only one study (cf. Goodman, 1965) found that girls tended to choose parents more often than boys, the wide consensus of the literature on the female sex role regarding femininity, early social development and maturity, and dependency seemed to justify this hypothesis (cf. Maccoby, 1967). As can be seen, in contrast, males are proportionately more parent oriented (41 per cent) than females (30 per cent). Similarly, females are proportionately more best-friend oriented (30 per cent) than males (20 per cent). In both cases, the majority (80 per cent of the females and 70 per cent of the males) are favorable to parents.

Table 2 Salience Hierarchy by Grade-level[a]

Salience Hierarchy	Grade-level					
	7th		9th		12th	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Parent-oriented	(317)	52.7	(148)	27.3	(84)	20.9
Parent/Best Friend-oriented	(219)	36.4	(240)	44.2	(149)	37.2
Best Friend-oriented	(66)	11.0	(155)	28.5	(168)	41.9
	Gamma = .44*[b]					
Totals	(602)		(543)		(401)	

Table 3 Salience Hierarchy by Sex

Salience Hierarchy	Sex			
	Females		Males	
	N	%	N	%
Parent-oriented	(228)	29.9	(321)	40.9
Parent/Best Friend-oriented	(303)	39.8	(305)	38.9
Best Friend-oriented	(231)	30.3	(158)	20.2
	Gamma = -.22*			
Totals	(762)		(784)	

[a] The "no answers" are eliminated from each table.

[b] Wherever an asterisk appears immediately after the correlation, gamma is significant at the .05 level.

Goodman's study (1965) also found that adolescents of higher social status were consistently more parent oriented than adolescents of lower social class affiliation. Hypothesis 6 ("the higher the social class level, the higher the parent orientation") is based on this finding. Although there are no other studies that deal directly with social class and the salience hierarchy, other studies (cf. Nye, 1961) support a relationship between the lower social classes and delinquency among youth. Assuming that there is a relationship between delinquency and the rejection of parents, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that lower class youth will be less parent oriented. Table 4 permits a test of this hypothesis.[1] Although gamma is not significant, i.e., the hypothesis must be rejected, there are clear patterns that may be identified. The proportion of adolescents who are parent oriented consistently increases the higher the social class category (from 31.6 to 44.6 per cent). The opposite pattern is observed for adolescents who are oriented to their best friends. A slightly greater proportion of lower class adolescents assign equal salience to their parents and best friends than do middle and upper class adolescents.

It is apparent to this point that grade level and sex are significant factors in any explanation of salience among youth. Social class has been shown to be a weak but consistent predictor of salience.

2. Parent-Adolescent Affect

The relationship between the salience hierarchy and the relative quality of parent-adolescent affect is shown in Table 5.[2] As predicted - hypothesis 4 - there is a significant relationship. The higher the quality of parent-adolescent affect, the more parent oriented the adolescent. Nearly 50 per cent of those adolescents who have a high quality relationship are parent oriented compared to approximately 26 per cent with a medium quality and 16 per cent with a low quality relationship. In contrast, less than 14 per cent in the high quality group are best friend oriented compared to over 50 per cent in the low quality group. It is significant to note that among parent oriented youth there is a 24 per cent drop in the proportion of youth parent oriented between the high quality group and the medium quality group compared to a 9 per cent change among the low quality group. In contrast, the change is reversed among those who assign priority to their best friends, i.e., the greatest change occurs between the medium and low quality group of adolescents rather than between the high and medium quality group. This would indicate that the intensity of quality parent-adolescent relationships are closely linked to parent orientations among youth while the intensity of weak parent-adolescent relationships are closely connected to best friend orientations.

---

[1] It will be remembered that the information on social class is not available for the entire sample but is limited to the information provided by those fathers who returned their questionnaires.

[2] The technique used in the development and measurement of parent-adolescent affect is presented in appendix B.

Table 4 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Social Position[a]

Salience Hierarchy	Index of Social Position I & II N	 %	 III N	 %	 IV & V N	 %
Parent-oriented	(37)	44.6	(49)	39.8	(93)	31.6
Parent/Best Friend-oriented	(29)	34.9	(45)	36.6	(119)	40.5
Best Friend-oriented	(17)	20.5	(29)	23.6	(82)	27.9
			Gamma = .16			
Totals	(83)		(123)		(294)	

Table 5 Salience Hierarchy by Quality of Parent-Adolescent Affect

Salience Hierarchy	Quality of Parent-Adolescent Affect High N	 %	 Medium N	 %	 Low N	 %
Parent-oriented	(371)	49.8	(130)	25.6	(48)	16.4
Parent/Best Friend-oriented	(272)	36.5	(237)	46.7	(98)	33.4
Best Friend-oriented	(102)	13.7	(140)	27.6	(147)	50.2
			Gamma = .48*			
Totals	(745)		(507)		(293)	

*Significant at the .05 level.

The importance of enabling the adolescent to assign equal salience to both his parents and his best friends is clearly illustrated in Table 5. More than 86 per cent of the high quality group are favorable to their parents compared to some 72 per cent of the medium and less than 50 per cent of the low quality adolescents. It is immediately apparent that adolescents with a medium quality relationship with their parents are considerably more inclined to assign equal salience to both parents and friends than among adolescents with a high quality relationship.

3. Reference Set Help

Hypothesis 2 predicts the character of the relationship between reference set help and the salience hierarchy: the higher the perceived helping potential of a referent, the higher the appropriate referent orientation. The following questionnaire item was used to measure this dimension for father, mothers, best friends, and teachers.

> PLEASE RATE YOUR FATHER ON HIS ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.[3]
>
> 1. ( ) My father is able and willing to help me decide.
> 2. ( ) My father is able to help me but he is not willing.
> 3. ( ) My father is willing to help me, but he is not able.
> 4. ( ) My father is neither able nor willing to help me decide.

The above item corresponds very closely to the item used by Gottlieb (1966). Utilizing the general notion that the mean ($\overline{X}$) level of involvement will increase with perceived ability and desire to help, Gottlieb found a linear relationship.

	Mean Involvement
Both Desire and Ability	4.01
Ability Only	3.41
Desire Only	3.01
Neither Desire nor Ability	2.36

Similarly, a difference in mean involvement was found among specific referents perceived to have desire only or ability only.

---

[3] The appropriate words were changed in each item to correspond to the referent in question. The responses for mother and father were combined into a single index of parents as helpmates.

Table 6 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals

Salience Hierarchy	Index of Reference Set Help A/D[a] N	%	D/a N	%	A/d-a/d N	%
Parents	(263)	39.4	(177)	32.9	(39)	29.3
Parents/ Best Friends	(250)	37.4	(215)	40.0	(57)	42.9
Best Friends	(155)	23.2	(146)	27.1	(37)	27.8
			Gamma = .11			
Totals	(688)		(538)		(133)	

Table 7 Salience Hierarchy by Index of Situational Effect

Salience Hierarchy	Index of Situational Effect Primarily Parent Oriented N	%	Primarily Best Friend Oriented N	%	Changers N	%
Parents	(136)	58.4	(8)	11.4	(393)	32.9
Parents/ Best Friends	(70)	30.0	(34)	48.6	(479)	40.2
Best Friends	(27)	11.6	(28)	40.0	(321)	26.9
			Gamma = .27*			
Totals	(233)		(70)		(1193)	

---

[a] The symbols stand for the perceived ability (A) and desire (D) of parents to help decide on goals. Capital letters refer to the presence of the quality whereas small letters refer to the absence of the quality.

*Significant at the .05 level.

Referent	Mean Involvement	
	Desire Only	Ability Only
Parents	3.56	3.12
Peers	3.28	3.74
Teachers	3.24	3.65

In the preliminary phase of data analysis it was observed that ability was of lesser importance, both qualitatively and quantitatively, than desire in the assessment of referent orientation. This is contrary to the theoretical perspectives and empirical findings of Gottlieb. Due to the assumptions of order in the Gottlieb model, as well as in this study, the relative order of ability and desire are reversed to accommodate the response patterns obtained. Thus, ability and desire are first, desire but not ability is second, ability but not desire is third, and neither ability nor desire is last.

The perceived relative ability and desire of parents, teachers, and best friends to help the adolescent decide on goals are combined into an index of reference set help in Table 6. The index is based on the mean response for the three items for each individual. In terms of the general assumption that adolescents prefer referents that are able and willing to help them make decisions, it is clear that there is but weak support. Gamma is not significant. Youth that see their social referents as having the ability and desire to help them make decisions tend to be slightly more parent oriented than those who see their referents as having desire only, ability only, or neither ability nor desire. However, there is little more than a 10 per cent difference. The general notion of pro-parent further weakens the significance of helpmate facility as a predictor of salience among youth. That is, there is little more than a 4 per cent change for variant levels of helpmate facility.

4. Effect of Situation

The situation hypothesis represents a large body of theoretical assumptions which are central to sociological analysis. Therefore, the characteristics of the immediate sociocultural situation must be carefully considered in any explanatory model of attitude or behavior. Indeed, the situation itself may alter predispositions to act, role-taking and role-modification processes, and the character of action (cf. Goodman, 1959; McCall and Simmons, 1966). The actual measurement of the influence of a situation, however, is quite difficult. Much research has, in consequence, relied on the hypothetical situation. The recent study by Brittain (1963) is an excellent example of this approach. His efforts were directed specifically to the measurement of cross-pressures between parents and peers and the effect of reference group priorities on the choice patterns of adolescents. His basic hypothesis was that adolescent choice patterns would reflect the perception that parents and peers are competent guides in differing areas of judgment. When choices refer to situations in which choices are future oriented the adolescent will opt for his parents' wishes. However, when the choice implicates current status and identity needs the adolescent will opt for his peers. According to Brittain, his findings are clear: Adolescents do opt for their parents when the choice has reference to their future whereas they opt for their peers when the choice has implications for difference or separation from friends. It is apparent then that the type of situation must be controlled in the explanation of the salience hierarchy.

The most important departure in this study from that of Brittain is an explicit attempt to measure whether it is indeed the situation or the orientations of the adolescent that facilitates the choice options. In order to measure this possible aspect of contamination, each of the situations is reversed, such that the cross-pressure emanates from the opposite reference set, as in Brittain's study and also compared with adolescent orientations across both situations. In this report, however, analysis will be limited to the overall effect of the various situations on the salience hierarchy. Therefore, an index of situational effect is produced. Adolescents who opted for the parent oriented choice in two or more situations[4] are classified as "primarily parent oriented," those opting for their best friends in two or more situations as "primarily best friend oriented" and those who changed their choice option in two or more situations "changers." Youth that do not fit into these three categories are eliminated from consideration.

Table 7 portrays the relationship between the salience hierarchy and the index of situational effect. Gamma is significant at the .05 level. Fifty-eight per cent of those who opted for their parents' wishes in two or more situations are parent oriented. Eighty-eight per cent are pro-parent. In contrast, only 11 per cent of those who opted for their friends in two or more situations are parent oriented; 40 per cent prefer their best friends. About half as many changers are parent oriented as those who opted for their parents' wishes while nearly 2½ times as many changers are oriented to their best friends as those who opted for their parents' wishes. In overall perspective about 79 per cent (1193/1496) changed their choice options in two or more situations, 16 per cent (233/1496) chose the option that corresponded to their parents' wishes in two or more situations, while less than 5 per cent (70/1496) are classified as primarily oriented to their best friends.

Prediction of Salience Hierarchy in Perspective

It will be recalled that the test of the relationship model as a predictor of the salience hierarchy would be organized in terms of two general hypotheses: (1) the parent-adolescent relationship is related to the salience hierarchy among youth; and (2) that the association between the parent-adolescent relationship and the salience hierarchy among youth would persist when alternative explanations are considered. The zero order relationships have been presented for four alternative explanations of salience: grade level, helpmate, situation, and the quality of the relationship. It has been suggested that the interconnection among these four approaches is the cornerstone of this report. Indeed, it is anticipated that the knowledge of the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets will improve the prediction of salience while reducing the efficiency of other predictors. Hypothesis 7, therefore, is central to the remaining analysis.

---

[4] The index of situational effect is based on the three combined effects of party, character and college hypothetical situations. Therefore, in order for an adolescent to have been classified as "primarily parent oriented" it is necessary for him to have remained parent oriented in four of the six situations (each of the three situations and their reversals).

> The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is a more efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy than grade level, sex, social class, type of situation, and the combined helping potential of referent.

The first part of this section focuses on the interrelationship among these four predictor variables and seeks to ascertain which variable sustains as the most efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy. The second part considers the theoretical significance of the findings obtained in this study. First of all, however, the intercorrelations among the predictor variables are considered.

Intercorrelation of Predictor Variables

Parts A and B of Table 8 merely indicate that the sex ratio approximates equality in each of the social class categories and in each of the grade levels.[5] As can be seen in part C, there is no relationship between sex and the quality of parent-adolescent affect. This is particularly interesting in light of the substantive finding noted earlier that adolescent girls are considerably less parent oriented than adolescent boys. In terms of their basic relationship with their parents, however, there does not appear to be any difference between boys and girls. Girls see their parents as having both ability and desire in helping them decide on goals to a greater extent than do boys (cf. part D, Table 8). Similarly, boys are more inclined to see their parents as having desire only. Although only a small proportion of both sexes see their parents as having neither desire nor ability to help, a slightly greater proportion of the boys than girls are inclined in this direction. The relationship obtained is significant at the .07 level. The z score is not quite large enough to fit within the designated confidence limits. The percentage distribution for sex and situational effect is presented in Table 8, part E. It is apparent that the knowledge of whether an adolescent is male of female helps little in the prediction of the choice patterns in hypothetical situations.

---

[5] These relationships were noted previously. They are reproduced here for the purpose of comparability.

Table 8 Interrelationships among Predictor Variables Associated with the Salience Hierarchy (in percentages)[a]

A. SEX AND INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION

	Index of Social Position			Total N
Sex	I&II	III	IV&V	N[b]
Females	16.7	24.5	58.8	(306)
Males	14.8	26.0	59.2	(311)

Gamma = .02

B. SEX AND GRADE-LEVEL

	Grade-Level			
Sex	Seventh	Ninth	Twelfth	N
Females	37.9	34.4	27.7	(762)
Males	39.8	35.9	24.3	(789)

Gamma = -.05

C. SEX AND PARENT-ADOLESCENT AFFECT

	Parent-Adolescent Affect			
Sex	High	Medium	Low	N
Females	48.6	32.8	18.6	(762)
Males	47.6	33.0	19.4	(788)

Gamma = -.08

D. SEX AND REFERENCE SET HELP

	Reference Set Help			
Sex	A/D	D/a	A/d-a/d	N
Females	56.6	34.9	8.5	(662)
Males	43.3	45.3	11.4	(677)

Gamma = .23

Table 8 (cont'd.)

E. SEX AND EFFECT OF SITUATIONS

	Situational Effect			
Sex	Primarily Parent Oriented	Primarily BF Oriented	Changed	N
Females	16.6	4.8	78.7	(736)
Males	14.8	4.6	80.7	(765)

Gamma = .06

F. INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION AND GRADE-LEVEL

		Grade-Level		
ISP	Seventh	Ninth	Twelfth	N[b]
I&II	38.1	27.8	34.0	(97)
III	30.1	35.3	34.6	(156)
IV&V	36.3	32.1	31.6	(364)

Gamma = -.05

G. INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION AND PARENT-ADOLESCENT AFFECT

	Parent-Adolescent Affect			
ISP	High	Medium	Low	N
I&II	71.1	24.7	4.1	(97)
III	55.8	31.4	12.8	(156)
IV&V	49.2	36.3	14.6	(364)

Gamma = .24

H. INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION AND REFERENCE SET HELP

		Reference Set Help		
ISP	A/D	D/a	A/d-a/d	N
I&II	60.0	35.3	4.7	(85)
III	61.3	32.1	6.6	(137)
IV&V	51.9	41.0	7.1	(322)

Gamma = .14

Table 8 (cont'd.)

I. INDEX OF SOCIAL POSITION AND SITUATIONAL EFFECT

ISP	Situational Effect Primarily Parent Oriented	Primarily BF Oriented	Changed	N
I&II	19.8	4.2	76.0	(96)
III	15.3	4.0	80.7	(150)
IV&V	16.7	4.5	78.8	(353)

Gamma = .02

J. GRADE-LEVEL AND PARENT-ADOLESCENT AFFECT

Grade-Level	Parent-Adolescent Affect High	Medium	Low	N
Seventh	58.7	28.4	12.9	(603)
Ninth	41.9	35.7	22.4	(544)
Twelfth	40.4	36.0	23.6	(403)

Gamma = .23*

K. GRADE-LEVEL AND REFERENCE SET HELP

Grade-Level	Reference Set Help A/D	D/a	A/d-a/d	N
Seventh	53.8	36.9	9.2	(509)
Ninth	45.7	42.1	12.2	(449)
Twelfth	49.6	42.3	8.1	(381)

Gamma = .05

L. GRADE-LEVEL AND SITUATIONAL EFFECT

Grade-Level	Situational Effect Primarily Parent Oriented	Primarily BF Oriented	Changed	N
Seventh	25.7	2.8	71.5	(579)
Ninth	9.7	8.1	82.2	(528)
Twelfth	8.9	2.8	88.3	(394)

Gamma = .36*

Table 8 (cont'd.)

M. PARENT-ADOLESCENT AFFECT AND REFERENCE SET HELP

Parent-Adol. Affect	Reference Set Help A/D	 D/a	 A/d-a/d	N
High	60.9	34.2	4.9	(655)
Medium	48.4	42.0	9.6	(436)
Low	23.4	52.8	23.8	(248)

Gamma = .42*

N. PARENT-ADOLESCENT AFFECT AND SITUATIONAL EFFECT

Parent-Adol. Affect	Situational Effect Primarily Par. Oriented	 Primarily BF Oriented	 Changed	N
High	22.1	2.8	75.1	(724)
Medium	12.0	5.3	82.7	(492)
Low	5.6	8.4	86.0	(285)

Gamma = .26*

O. REFERENCE SET HELP AND SITUATIONAL EFFECT

Reference Set Help	Situational Effect Primarily Par. Oriented	 Primarily BF Oriented	 Changed	N
A/D	18.0	3.2	78.8	(650)
D/a	13.5	5.4	81.2	(520)
A/d-a/d	9.9	8.4	81.7	(131)

Gamma = .09

---

[a] This table is percentaged across to facilitate the presentation of the relationships; therefore, the percentages should be compared down.

[b] It will be remembered that where social class is introduced, the N is limited to the number of responses mailed in by fathers.

*Significant at the .05 level.

The perceived quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is related to social class. The higher the social class level, the higher the quality of parent-adolescent affect (see Table 8, part G). Due to the small N, this relationship is not significant at the .05 level. There is a small positive relationship between social class and reference set help. There is no relationship between social class and the choice patterns in hypothetical situations.

Both grade level and the parent-adolescent relationship have been seen to be highly correlated with the salience hierarchy. Thus, it may be seen that the relationship between grade level and parent-adolescent affect is important. Part J, in Table 8, provides evidence that this relationship is positive and significant. The lower the grade level, the higher the degree of parent-adolescent affect. It may be emphasized that there is little difference between the patterns of parental affect in the ninth and twelfth grades. The greatest difference lies in the seventh grade. The difference among the grades is more pronounced among those that have a high quality parent-adolescent relationship (18.3 per cent) than it is among those who have a low quality parent-adolescent relationship (10.7 per cent). This would seem to indicate that intensity of parental affect is more related to grade levels than intensity of parental disaffection.

The goals hypothesis would seem most favorably related to the higher grade levels in the school system in that it has to do with decisions about goals. Indeed, the twelfth grader might be expected to register the significance of the helpmate hypothesis. As can be seen in Table 8, part K, there is some relationship but it is extremely weak. Seventh graders are more interested than twelfth graders in assigning ability and desire values to their referents. Ninth graders, on the other hand, are slightly less so inclined. Thus, the pursuit of goals within the preferential world of the adolescent has little to do with the adolescent's grade in school. Considering their goal naiveté, the slight overrepresentation of seventh graders in the higher reference set categories may indicate that the ability and desire components alone are more important than the attachment of ability and desire to ends. This possibility should be studied further.

Parts 3 and 4 under Zero Order Relationships indicated rather clearly that the situations in which the adolescent participates have a considerable effect on his choice patterns. Given the established significance of grade level, it may be expected that these two variables are related. Indeed, part L, Table 8, illustrates that they are significantly correlated. A considerably higher percentage of seventh graders remained parent oriented than either ninth or twelfth graders, 25.7 per cent versus 9.7 and 8.9 per cent respectively. A larger proportion of ninth graders remained best friend oriented. Twelfth graders more often changed under the effect of the various situations than did either ninth or seventh graders. Again, however, the most pronounced finding is that the majority at all grade levels changed their choice patterns under the influence of the situation.

The correlation between parent-adolescent affect and the help of referents in deciding on goals is significant (see Table 8, part M).

The higher the quality of parent-adolescent affect, the more pronounced the perception that referents are able and willing to help. Among adolescents that see their parents as having ability only or neither the ability or desire to help them make decisions nearly 24 per cent also see themselves as having a low quality relationship with their parents. It will be remembered, however, that the predominant element in the reference set help index is the ability and desire of parents to help.

Grade level, parent-adolescent affect, and situation effect have all been shown to be efficient predictors of salience among youth. It was seen that grade level and situational effect are positively and significantly related. Parent-adolescent affect and the effect of the situation on the choice patterns of youth are also significantly correlated. Part N of Table 8 indicates that among those who remained parent oriented across several situations, the larger proportion (22 per cent) have a strong relationship with their parents in contrast to less than 6 per cent of those who have a poor affectional relationship with their parents. As with the grade level/situation effect pattern, the majority at all parental affect levels changed their choice patterns.

The final partial table in Table 8 presents the relationship between reference set help and the effect of the situation. The relationship is not significantly correlated. Nonetheless, the pattern of the data is in the expected direction.

The intercorrelation of the predictor variables has illustrated the significance of the interrelationship among three variables: parent-adolescent affect, grade level, and the effect of hypothetical situations on choice patterns. As can be seen in the summary correlation table (Table 9) these are the only variables significantly correlated with the exception of parent-adolescent affect and reference set help. The significance of these compounding and interacting relationships will become clearer in the prediction of the salience hierarchy to which we now turn.

Third Order Relationships

1. Reference Set Help

Table 10 indicates that sex does not significantly alter the relationship between reference set help and the salience hierarchy. It is clear, however, that a substantially larger proportion of males than females assign priority to their parents at all levels of reference set help. The appropriate percentages for males varies from 46.4 to 35.1 per cent while for females the percentages vary from 33.9 to 21.4 per cent. Similarly, grade level does not significantly change the original X-Y relationship (see Table 11). The largest percentage of seventh graders are parent oriented, regardless of the level of perceived reference set help, with the exception of the lowest level where a slightly higher percentage are pro-parent. In the ninth grade, the largest percentage are best friend oriented. Therefore, it is apparent that grade level operates independently of reference set help in predicting the salience hierarchy. The reference set help approach simply does not work as efficiently in this regard. Table 12 illustrates the

Table 9 Gamma Matrix: Intercorrelations Among Sex, ISP, Grade Level Parent-Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help, and Situational Effect

	Symbol	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5
Sex	X_1					
Social Class	X_2	.02				
Grade Level	X_3	-.05	-.04			
Parent-Adolescent Affect	X_4	.02	.24	.23*		
Reference Set Help	X_5	.23	.14	.05	.42*	
Situational Effect	X_6	.06	.02	.36*	.26*	.09

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 10 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Sex

	Reference Set Help					
Salience Hierarchy	A/D[a] N	%	D/a N	%	A/d-a/d N	%
			FEMALES			
Parents	(127)	33.9	(58)	25.1	(12)	21.4
Parents/Best Friends	(147)	39.2	(89)	38.5	(25)	44.6
Best Friends	(101)	26.9	(84)	36.4	(19)	33.9
			Gamma = .17[b]			
			MALES			
Parents	(136)	46.4	(119)	38.8	(27)	35.1
Parents/Best Friends	(103)	35.2	(126)	41.0	(32)	41.6
Best Friends	(54)	18.4	(62)	20.2	(18)	23.4
			Gamma = .12[b]			

[a] A/D refers to perceived ability and desire to help the adolescent decide on goals, D/a = desire, but not ability, A/d-a/d refers to ability but no desire or neither ability nor desire to help.

[b] Interaction test not significant.

Table 11 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Grade Level

Salience Hierarchy	Reference Set Help					
	A/D[a]		D/a		A/d-a/d	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	SEVENTH GRADE					
Parents	(156)	56.9	(104)	55.3	(20)	42.6
Parents/Best Friend	(85)	31.0	(66)	35.1	(25)	53.2
Best Friends	(33)	12.0	(18)	9.6	(2)	4.3
	Gamma = .05[b]					
	NINTH GRADE					
Parents	(60)	29.3	(48)	25.4	(11)	20.0
Parents/Best Friend	(94)	45.9	(86)	45.5	(22)	40.0
Best Friends	(51)	24.9	(55)	29.1	(22)	40.0
	Gamma = .14[b]					
	TWELFTH GRADE					
Parents	(47)	24.9	(25)	15.5	(8)	25.8
Parents/Best Friend	(71)	37.6	(63)	39.1	(10)	32.3
Best Friends	(71)	37.6	(73)	45.3	(13)	41.8
	Gamma = .12[b]					

[a] A/D refers to perceived ability and desire to help the adolescent decide on goals, D/a = desire, but not ability, A/d-a/d refers to ability but no desire or neither ability nor desire to help.

[b] Interaction test not significant.

Table 12 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Index of Social Position

Salience Hierarchy	Reference Set Help					
	A/D[a]		D/a		A/d-a/d	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	ISP: I & II					
Parents	(21)	41.2	(14)	46.7	(2)	50.0
Parents/Best Friend	(22)	43.1	(7)	23.3	(1)	25.0
Best Friends	(8)	15.7	(9)	30.0	(1)	25.0
	Gamma = .04[b]					
	ISP: III					
Parents	(33)	39.3	(18)	40.9	(5)	55.6
Parents/Best Friend	(29)	34.5	(16)	36.4	(4)	44.0
Best Friends	(22)	26.2	(10)	22.7	(0)	0.0
	Gamma = -.14[b]					
	ISP: IV & V					
Parents	(60)	35.9	(38)	28.8	(5)	21.7
Parents/Best Friend	(63)	37.7	(57)	43.2	(12)	52.2
Best Friends	(44)	26.3	(37)	28.0	(6)	6.1
	Gamma = .10[b]					

---

[a] A/D refers to perceived ability and desire to help the adolescent decide on goals, D/a = desire, but not ability, A/d-a/d refers to ability but no desire or neither ability nor desire to help.

[b] Interaction test not significant.

relationship between reference set help and the salience hierarchy controlling for social class. As can be seen, social class does not significantly alter the relationship. In the A/d-a/d category the N is too small to make a judgment. However, it is interesting to note that Desire is slightly more important than Ability and Desire in the upper class in the prediction of parent orientation whereas in the lower class, Ability and Desire is more important than Desire alone.

The effect of the choice patterns in hypothetical situations on the relationship between reference set help and the salience hierarchy is presented in Table 13. Again, the difference among the partials is insignificant. Among those who chose the parent option across situations, the majority remained parent oriented (60 per cent) where ability and desire or desire to help was perceived. A considerably smaller proportion are parent oriented where no ability or desire is perceived (38.5 per cent). Among those that opted for their best friends in the hypothetical situations, reference set help is slightly related to best friend orientation. The changers are primarily parent/best friend oriented regardless of reference set help level.

It may be concluded that reference set help is an inefficient predictor of salience. Where other factors are introduced, the significance of the patterns in the controlling factors become apparent.

2. Effect of Situations

The X-Y relationship between the salience hierarchy and the effect of situations controlling for sex, grade level, and social class are presented in Tables 14-16. Table 14 illustrates that sex is not a significant intervening factor. A slightly higher percentage of males than females remained parent oriented (63 versus 54 per cent). Similarly, a considerably higher percentage of females than males remained best friend oriented (54 versus 26 per cent). Among those who changed, males are more parent oriented, females more best friend oriented.

Grade level is seen as a significant confounding variable in Table 15. Among those who remained parent oriented in their choice options, the lower the grade level the higher parent and pro-parent priorities. Similarly, among those adolescents who chose the best friend options across situations, the lower the grade level the higher pro-parent priorities. Among those who changed their choice options, seventh graders are most parent oriented and twelfth graders least parent oriented. Table 16 indicates that social class is also a significant intervening variable. Among adolescents who opted for their parents' wishes, upper class adolescents are considerably more parent oriented than lower class adolescents (78 versus 56 per cent). Pro-parent priority among changers as well as among nonchangers differs little, however, among the various social classes. The remaining third order relationships are considered in terms of the X-Y relationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy.

Table 13 Salience Hierarchy by Reference Set Help by Effect of Situations

	Reference Set Help					
Salience Hierarchy	A/D[a]		D/a		A/d-a/d	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	PRIMARILY PARENT ORIENTED					
Parents	(71)	60.7	(42)	60.0	(5)	38.5
Parents/Best Friend	(34)	29.1	(19)	27.1	(5)	38.5
Best Friends	(12)	10.3	(9)	12.9	(3)	23.1
	Gamma = .12[b]					
	PRIMARILY BEST FRIEND ORIENTED					
Parents	(2)	9.5	(4)	14.3	(2)	18.2
Parents/Best Friend	(9)	42.9	(12)	42.9	(5)	45.5
Best Friends	(10)	47.6	(12)	42.9	(4)	36.4
	Gamma = .14[b]					
	CHANGED					
Parents	(183)	35.7	(126)	29.9	(32)	29.9
Parents/Best Friend	(199)	38.9	(178)	42.2	(45)	42.1
Best Friends	(130)	25.4	(118)	28.0	(30)	28.0
	Gamma = .08[b]					

---

[a] A/D refers to perceived ability and desire to help the adolescent decide on goals, D/a = desire, but not ability, A/d-a/d refers to ability but no desire or neither ability nor desire to help.

[b] Interaction test not significant.

Table 14 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Sex

Salience Hierarchy	Effect of Situation					
	Primarily Parent Oriented		Primarily Best Friend Oriented		Changed	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
FEMALES						
Parents	(66)	54.1	(2)	5.7	(154)	26.6
Parents/Best Friend	(37)	30.3	(14)	40.0	(240)	41.5
Best Friends	(19)	15.6	(19)	54.3	(184)	31.8
Gamma = .28[a]						
MALES						
Parents	(70)	63.1	(6)	17.1	(239)	38.9
Parents/Best Friend	(33)	29.7	(20)	57.1	(239)	38.9
Best Friends	(8)	8.2	(9)	25.7	(137)	22.3
Gamma = .29[a]						

[a] Interaction test not significant.

Table 15 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Grade Level

Salience Hierarchy	Effect of Situation Primarily Parent Oriented N	%	Primarily Best Friend Oriented N	%	Changed N	%
			SEVENTH GRADE			
Parents	(98)	65.8	(4)	25.0	(207)	50.1
Parents/Best Friend	(40)	26.8	(10)	62.5	(156)	37.8
Best Friends	(11)	7.4	(2)	12.5	(50)	12.1
			Gamma = .23[a]			
			NINTH GRADE			
Parents	(24)	47.1	(3)	7.0	(119)	27.5
Parents/Best Friend	(20)	39.2	(21)	48.8	(190)	44.0
Best Friends	(7)	13.7	(19)	44.2	(23)	28.5
			Gamma = .06[a]			
			TWELFTH GRADE			
Parents	(114)	42.4	(1)	9.1	(67)	19.3
Parents/Best Friend	(10)	30.3	(3)	27.3	(133)	38.2
Best Friends	(9)	27.3	(7)	63.6	(148)	42.5
			Gamma = .21[a]			

[a] Interaction test significant at .05 level.

Table 16 Salience Hierarchy by Effect of Situations by Index of Social Position

Salience Hierarchy	Effect of Situation					
	Primarily Parent Oriented		Primarily Best Friend Oriented		Changed	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
ISP: I & II						
Parents	(14)	77.8	(2)	50.0	(26)	35.6
Parents/Best Friend	(1)	5.6	(2)	50.0	(30)	41.1
Best Friends	(3)	16.7	(0)	0.0	(17)	23.3
Gamma = .52[a]						
ISP: III						
Parents	(12)	52.2	(0)	0.0	(50)	41.3
Parents/Best Friend	(8)	34.8	(2)	33.3	(43)	35.5
Best Friends	(3)	13.0	(4)	66.7	(28)	23.1
Gamma = .03[a]						
ISP: IV & V						
Parents	(33)	55.9	(0)	0.0	(80)	28.8
Parents/Best Friend	(20)	33.9	(12)	75.0	(114)	41.0
Best Friends	(6)	10.2	(4)	25.0	(84)	30.2
Gamma = .37[a]						

[a] Interaction test significant at .05 level.

3. Parent-Adolescent Affect, Grade Level, Sex, and Social Class

It is predicted that parent-adolescent affect will sustain as the most efficient predictor of salience. Therefore, the most important analysis of third order relationships is the relationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy controlling for each of the other predictor (Z) variables.

Table 17 indicates that sex is an important intervening variable. The differences are quite apparent. Among adolescents who have a high degree of parental affect, males are considerably more oriented to their parents, females substantially more oriented to their best friends. At medium levels of parental affect, males are nearly twice as parent oriented as females (32 per cent and 19 per cent respectively). The differences are less pronounced among adolescents who see themselves as having a poor affective relationship with their parents. Even so, females are clearly more oriented to their best friends than their male counterparts.

Social class seems to have little influence on the relationship between the salience hierarchy and the parent-adolescent relationship (see Table 18). Among adolescents who have a high quality affective relationship, middle class adolescents are slightly more parent oriented than upper class adolescents, and upper class adolescents are slightly more parent oriented than lower class adolescents. Among those with a medium degree of parental affect, the orientation toward best friends is most pronounced in the lower class.

Table 19 presents the relationship between the salience hierarchy and parent-adolescent affect controlling for grade level. As is clear, the interaction test is significant. Several substantive patterns are evident. The higher the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship, the higher the proportion that are parent oriented regardless of grade level. By the same token, however, the higher the grade level (seventh to twelfth) the lower the overall proportions of adolescents who assign priority to their parents. In the seventh grade, less than 7 per cent prefer their best friends among those who have a high degree of affect for their parents whereas about 21 per cent prefer their best friends among those who have a poor relationship with their parents. Thus, in the seventh grade the effect of parent-adolescent affect on best friend orientation is about 14 per cent. In contrast, the effect of the parent-adolescent relationship in the ninth grade is nearly 43 per cent (14.5 to 57.0 per cent); and about 39 per cent in the twelfth grade (26.5 to 65.3 per cent). It is therefore apparent that both grade level and parent-adolescent affect are essential predictors of the salience hierarchy.

Table 20 indicates that the ability and desire of reference set help in deciding on goals has no effect on the original relationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy. In contrast, the effect of choice patterns across several situations does alter the X-Y relationship (see Table 21). There is a significant difference in the correlation (.32) in the primarily parent oriented

Table 17 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Sex

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Relationship					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	FEMALES					
Parents	(161)	43.5	(47)	18.8	(20)	14.2
Parents/Best Friend	(142)	38.4	(116)	46.4	(45)	31.9
Best Friends	(67)	18.1	(87)	34.8	(76)	53.9
	Gamma = .47*[a]					
	MALES					
Parents	(212)	56.7	(83)	32.3	(29)	19.1
Parents/Best Friend	(129)	34.5	(121)	47.1	(52)	34.2
Best Friends	(33)	8.8	(53)	20.6	(71)	46.7
	Gamma = .51*[a]					

[a] Interaction test significant at the .02 level.

Table 18 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Index of Social Position

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Relationship					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
ISP: I & II						
Parents	(36)	52.9	(6)	25.0	(0)	0.0
Parents/Best Friend	(22)	32.4	(12)	50.0	(0)	0.0
Best Friends	(10)	14.7	(6)	25.0	(4)	100.0
Gamma = .55*[a]						
ISP: III						
Parents	(48)	55.2	(12)	24.5	(5)	25.0
Parents/Best Friend	(23)	26.4	(26)	53.1	(5)	25.0
Best Friends	(16)	18.4	(11)	22.4	(10)	50.0
Gamma = .42*[a]						
ISP: IV & V						
Parents	(82)	45.8	(28)	21.2	(6)	11.3
Parents/Best Friend	(73)	40.8	(60)	45.5	(18)	34.0
Best Friends	(24)	13.4	(44)	33.3	(29)	54.7
Gamma = .52*[a]						

[a] Interaction test could not be carried out due to zeros in cells.

Table 19 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Relationship					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
			SEVENTH GRADE			
Parents	(219)	61.9	(72)	42.1	(27)	35.1
Parents/Best Friend	(111)	31.4	(73)	42.7	(34)	44.2
Best Friends	(24)	6.8	(26)	15.2	(16)	20.8
			Gamma = .37*[a]			
			NINTH GRADE			
Parents	(95)	41.7	(37)	19.2	(18)	14.9
Parents/Best Friend	(100)	43.9	(105)	54.4	(34)	28.1
Best Friends	(33)	14.5	(51)	26.4	(69)	57.0
			Gamma = .49*[a]			
			TWELFTH GRADE			
Parents	(59)	36.4	(21)	14.7	(4)	4.2
Parents/ Best Friend	(60)	37.0	(59)	41.3	(29)	30.5
Best Friends	(43)	26.5	(63)	44.1	(62)	65.3
			Gamma = .49*[a]			

[a] Interaction test significant.

Table 20 Salience Hierarchy by Parent Adolescent Affect by Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Affect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
ABILITY AND DESIRE						
Parents	(197)	49.4	(54)	25.6	(12)	20.7
Parents/Best Friend	(142)	35.6	(91)	43.1	(17)	29.3
Best Friends	(60)	15.0	(66)	31.3	(29)	50.0
Gamma = .44*[a]						
DESIRE, NO ABILITY						
Parents	(114)	50.9	(45)	24.6	(18)	13.7
Parents/Best Friend	(82)	36.6	(90)	49.2	(43)	32.8
Best Friends	(28)	12.5	(48)	26.2	(70)	53.4
Gamma = .53*[a]						
ABILITY-NO DESIRE/NEITHER DESIRE NOR ABILITY						
Parents	(16)	50.0	(13)	31.0	(10)	16.9
Parents/Best Friend	(13)	40.6	(22)	52.4	(22)	37.3
Best Friends	(3)	9.4	(7)	16.7	(27)	45.8
Gamma = .51*[a]						

[a] Interaction test not significant.

Table 21 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Affect by Effect of Situations

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Affect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
PRIMARILY PARENT ORIENTED						
Parents	(101)	63.5	(29)	50.0	(6)	37.5
Parents/Best Friend	(46)	28.9	(17)	29.3	(7)	43.8
Best Friends	(12)	7.5	(12)	20.7	(3)	18.8
Gamma = .32[a]						
PRIMARILY BEST FRIEND ORIENTED[b]						
Parents	(5)	25.0	(2)	7.7	(1)	4.2
Parents/Best Friend	(10)	50.0	(18)	69.2	(6)	25.0
Best Friends	(5)	25.0	(6)	23.1	(17)	70.8
Gamma = .57[a]						
CHANGERS						
Parents	(255)	46.9	(97)	23.9	(41)	16.9
Parents/Best Friend	(208)	38.2	(191)	47.0	(80)	32.9
Best Friends	(81)	14.9	(118)	29.1	(122)	50.2
Gamma = .45*[a]						

[a] Interaction test significant at .05 level.

[b] The N in this case is probably too small to be reliable.

partial and the changers partial (.45). In the first case, the N is too small for gamma to be significant. A similar point applies to the primarily best friend oriented partial. Among those adolescents who opted for the parent oriented choice across several hypothetical situations, it is clear that they prefer their parents. Not less than 80 per cent across all levels of parental affect chose either their parents or assign equal salience to both their parents and best friends. Sixty-four per cent of those who have a high quality parent-adolescent relationship assign priority to their parents. There are two rather clear patterns in the second partial. Among adolescents having a high or medium quality relationship with their parents, the majority chose the "both" option in selecting their hierarchical preferences. The second finding is that nearly 71 per cent of those who have a poor affect with their parents opted for their best friends. The patterns in the third partial - adolescents who changed their choice options from situation to situation - are similar to the basic pattern between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy. That is, the higher the degree of parental affect, the higher the degree of parent orientation. The most apparent difference between the changers and those who remained primarily parent oriented is that the patterns of parent preference are much less pronounced. Thus, there is a 17 per cent difference in parent orientation among those who have a high quality parent-adolescent relationship. Similarly, there is a 32 per cent difference among those who have a low quality affective relationship with their parents in terms of orientation to best friends (18.8 per cent versus 50.2 per cent). However, the fact that the basic patterns of the X-Y relationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy remains basically unchanged even among those who have changed their choice options in at least 4 of 6 hypothetical situations clouds the predictive efficiency of parent-adolescent affect. Indeed, to change choice options, the adolescent of necessity had to go against the wishes of his parents. The findings indicate that he did so in spite of his parental preferences. As suggested earlier, it would seem that the adolescent could not conceive of a hypothetical situation in which his parents would pressure him to be dishonest (character situation) or pressure him to remain in the general program. Therefore, their choice patterns (among the majority) may not reflect realistic measures of cross-pressures.

Table 22 identifies the interrelationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy controlling for both grade level and sex. Each of these variables has been seen to be efficient predictors of salience among youth. The effect of both grade level and sex is clear. In the first place, at all grade levels, males consistently assign their parents greater priority than females at all levels of parent-adolescent affect. Thus, among seventh graders the range of parent priority among females varies from 59 per cent to 30 per cent while among males it varies from 64 per cent to 41 per cent. In the ninth grade, the differences are most pronounced among adolescents who see themselves as having a high or medium affective relationship with their parents while the difference is minimal between males and females where the adolescents have a low affective parental relationship. The range varies from 28 per cent to 12 per cent for females and from 53 per cent to 15 per cent for males. In the twelfth grade as well, similar patterns are evident. The range for females is from a high of

Table 22 Salience Hierarchy by Parent Adolescent Affect by Grade Level and Sex

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Affect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
	FEMALES - SEVENTH GRADE					
Parents	(94)	58.8	(33)	38.4	(13)	30.2
Parents/Best Friends	(51)	31.9	(39)	45.3	(20)	46.5
Best Friends	(15)	9.4	(14)	16.3	(10)	23.3
Total	(160)		(86)		(43)	
	MALES - SEVENTH GRADE					
Parents	(123)	64.1	(39)	45.9	(14)	41.2
Parents/Best Friends	(60)	31.3	(34)	40.0	(14)	41.2
Best Friends	(9)	4.7	(12)	14.1	(6)	17.6
Total	(192)		(85)		(34)	
	FEMALES - NINTH GRADE					
Parents	(30)	28.0	(7)	7.0	(6)	11.5
Parents/Best Friends	(55)	51.4	(54)	54.0	(15)	28.8
Best Friends	(22)	20.6	(39)	39.0	(31)	59.6
Total	(107)		(100)		(52)	
	MALES - NINTH GRADE					
Parents	(63)	52.9	(30)	32.3	(10)	14.9
Parents/Best Friends	(45)	37.8	(51)	54.8	(19)	28.4
Best Friends	(11)	9.2	(12)	12.9	(38)	56.7
Total	(119)		(93)		(67)	
	FEMALES - TWELFTH GRADE					
Parents	(35)	34.7	(7)	9.5	(1)	2.2
Parents/Best Friends	(36)	35.6	(23)	31.1	(10)	21.7
Best Friends	(30)	29.7	(24)	45.9	(35)	76.1
Total	(101)		(74)		(46)	
	MALES - TWELFTH GRADE					
Parents	(24)	39.3	(14)	17.7	(3)	6.1
Parents/Best Friends	(24)	39.3	(36)	45.6	(19)	38.8
Best Friends	(13)	21.3	(29)	38.0	(27)	55.1
Total	(61)		(79)		(49)	

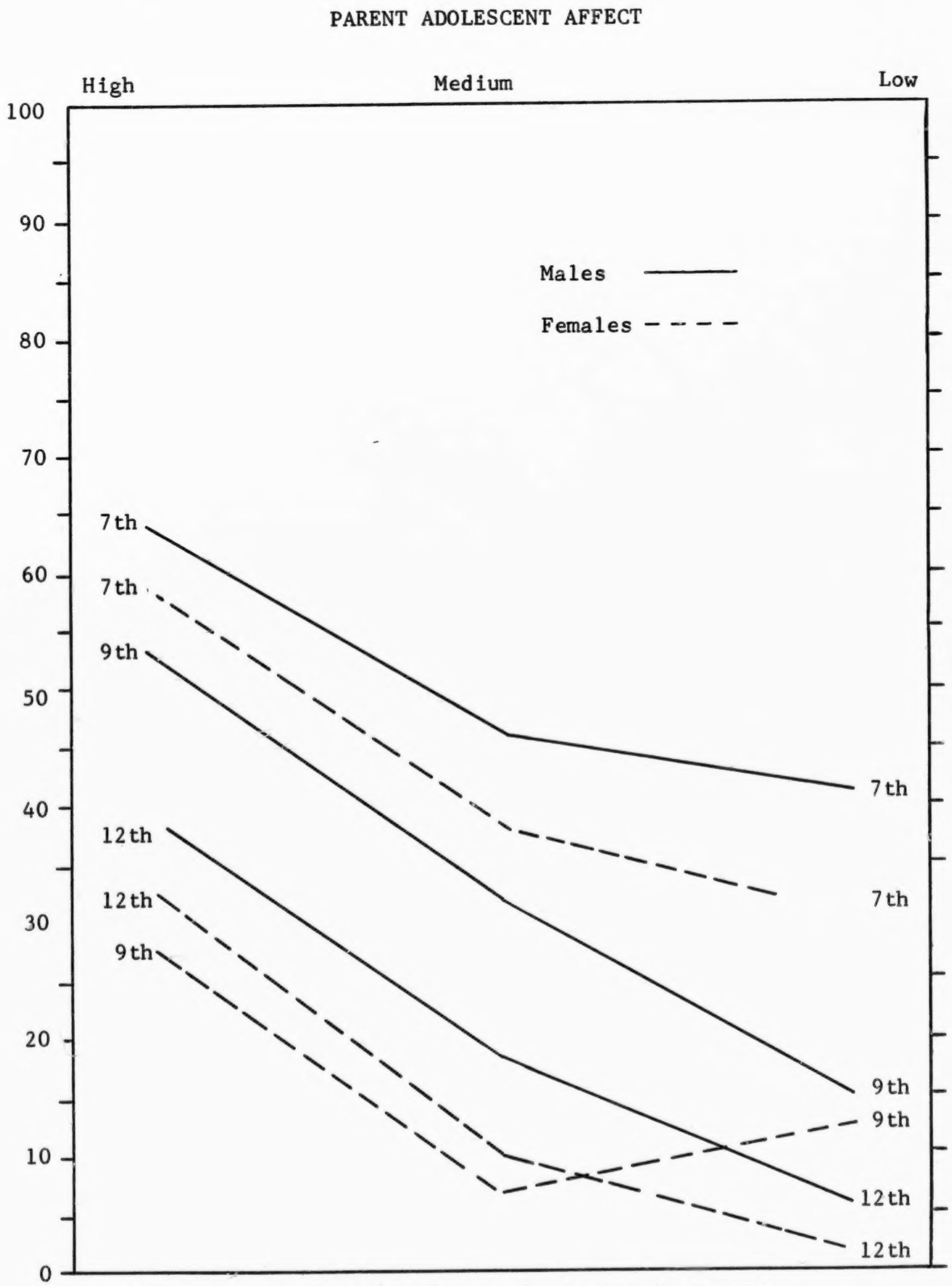


Figure 6 Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex

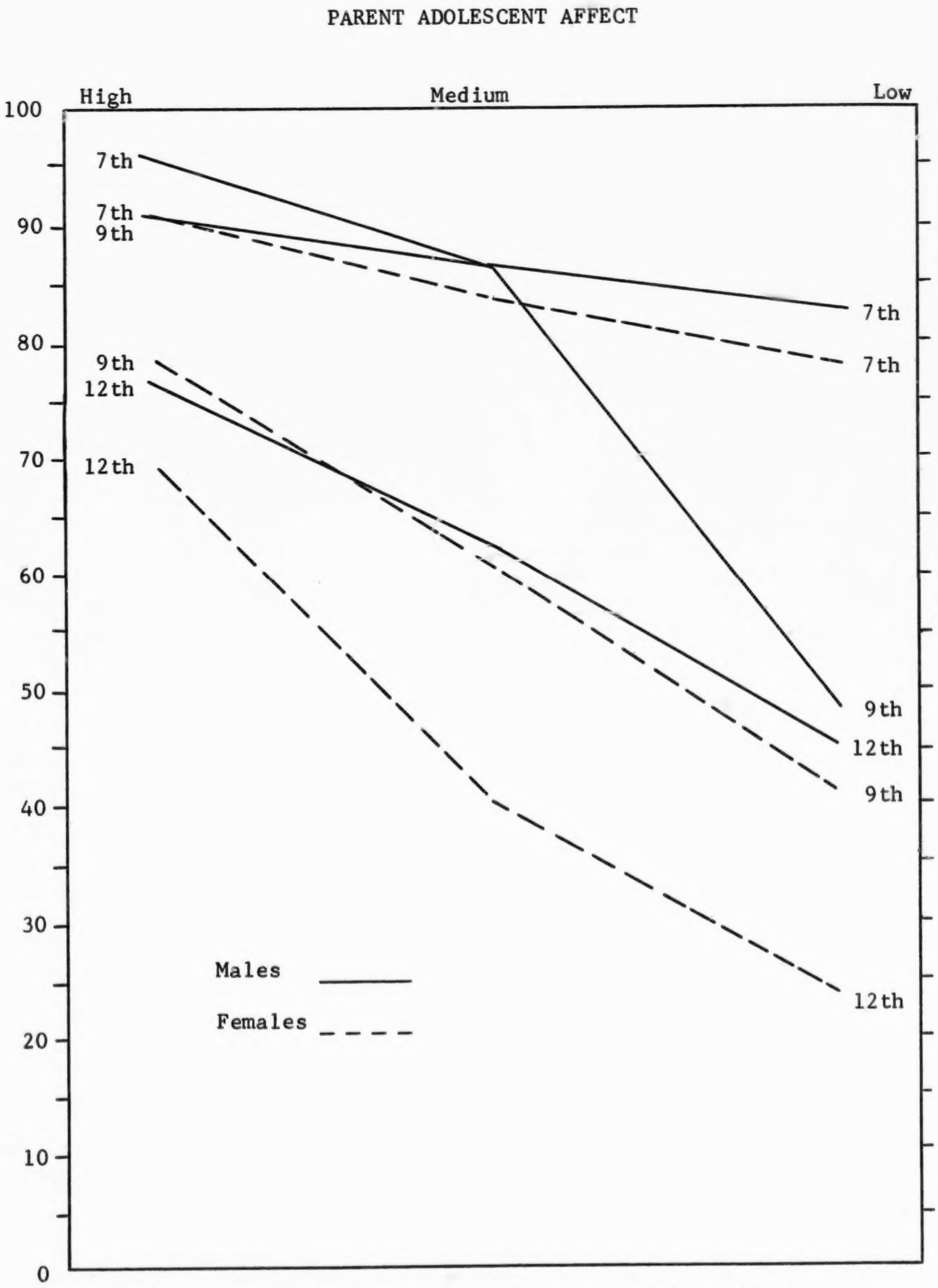


Figure 7 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent-Adolescent Affect, and Sex

35 per cent to a low of 2 per cent. In contrast, the range for males is from a high of 40 per cent to a low of 6 per cent. The second major effect of sex, then, is also clear: the difference between males and females is most pronounced among ninth graders. Figure 6 graphically illustrates the significance of the interrelationship among sex, grade level, and parent-adolescent affect for those adolescents who assign priority to their parents. As can be seen, the patterns in figure 6 indicate that parent priority among youth decreases as grade level increases, decreases as the quality of parent-adolescent affect decreases, and is lower for females than it is for males. Figure 7 while illustrating the same patterns also portrays the significance of pro-parent orientations among youth at the higher levels of parent-adolescent affect. Whereas more than 45 per cent of all males remain pro-parent (parent/best friend) even at the lowest level of parent affect, less than 24 per cent of the females fall into these categories. Indeed, a larger proportion of 12th grade males than 9th grade females remain pro-parent in their reference set preferences. The basic findings in this table may be summarized as follows.

a. Grade level considerably reduces the proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents (from 64.1 per cent in the seventh grade to 34.7 per cent in the twelfth grade).

    (1) The decrease in parent priority by grade level differs consistently for males and females: Males consistently assign greater priority to their parents than females at all grade levels.

    (2) These findings sustain in spite of a high degree of parent-adolescent affect.

b. The relative quality of parent-adolescent affect considerably reduces the proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents within each grade level. Thus, the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the degree of parent priority among youth.

    (1) The decrease in parent priority by level of parent-adolescent affect within each grade level differs consistently for males and females: Males consistently assign greater priority to their parents than females at all levels of affect.

c. Pro-parent priority among youth is consistently reduced by grade level, level of parent-adolescent affect, and sex.

    (1) Among adolescents with a low degree of parent-adolescent affect, the sex differences and grade differences are more pronounced in the pro-parent priority group than in the parent priority group.

The influence of social class on the above findings is presented in Table 23. It may be noted that the influence of a third control variable is difficult to assess in that the cell frequencies are reduced in many instances to less than 10. Therefore, conclusive judgments simply cannot be made. As can be seen in Table 23, there are a large number of cells with an insufficient N in medium and low levels of parent-adolescent affect. In addition, note that the table has been changed to accommodate parent priority and pro-parent priority only and that only percentages are presented.

To this point social class has been seen as a relatively unimportant factor in understanding the salience hierarchy. When it is considered in the light of parent-adolescent affect, grade level, and social class, however, several complex interrelationships emerge. In the seventh grade, both upper and middle class females assign greater priority to their parents than do males (Upper - 81.3 per cent versus 68.8 per cent, Middle - 75.0 per cent versus 22.2 per cent). In the ninth grade, however, these relationships are reversed. Upper, middle, and lower class males are consistently more parent oriented than females (87.5 versus 25.0 per cent, 57.9 versus 36.4 per cent, and 42.3 versus 30.4 per cent respectively). The twelfth graders seem to characterize a still different pattern. Upper class females are slightly more parent oriented than males; middle class males are considerably more parent oriented than females (54.5 per cent versus 29.4 per cent); and lower class females in the twelfth grade are more parent oriented than males (45.5 versus 36.4 per cent respectively).[6] Figure 8 is presented to illustrate these relationships.

It is apparent that there is a fairly wide degree of heterogeneity in the upper class and considerable homogeneity in the lower class. In the upper class, seventh and ninth grade boys and seventh grade girls assign similar high levels of parent priority. In contrast, upper class ninth and twelfth grade girls and twelfth grade boys assign quite low levels of priority to their parents. This pattern is partially reversed in the middle class. Seventh grade boys are much less parent oriented in the middle class than twelfth grade boys. Middle class ninth and twelfth grade girls are slightly more parent oriented than their upper class counterparts.

When pro-parent orientation is considered (parent priority and the assignment of equal salience to both parents and best friends combined) several changes in the patterns observed in figure 8 take place. The pronounced change between upper and middle class seventh grade boys (69 versus 22 per cent) is virtually eliminated (cf. Table 23). Indeed, all of these adolescent boys fit into the pro-parent category. The differences between males and females in the seventh grade by social class are no longer significant. This change of pattern is

---

[6] It will be remembered that the effect of lower levels of parental affect cannot be assessed due to the small N.

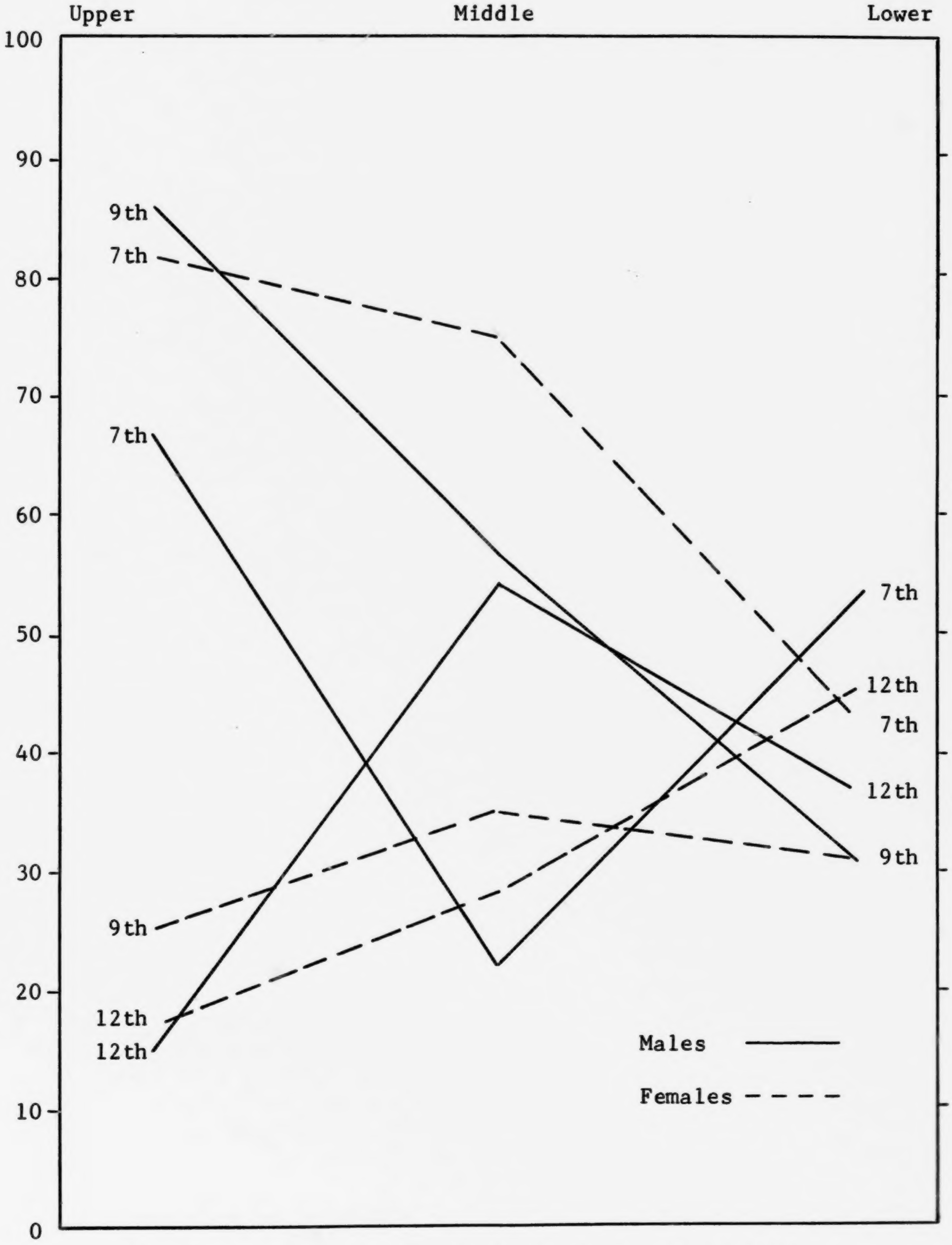
Table 23 Parent Priority and Pro-Parent (Parent/Best Friend) Priority by Parent Adolescent Affect, Grade Level, Sex, and Social Class (percentages only)

Partial	Parent Adolescent Affect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority
FEMALE - SEVENTH GRADE						
Female, 7th Grade Upper Class	81.3	100.0	***[a]	***	***	***
Female, 7th Grade Middle Class	75.0	80.0	***	***	***	***
Female, 7th Grade Lower Class	42.4	84.5	35.0	85.0	***	***
MALE - SEVENTH GRADE						
Male, 7th Grade Upper Class	68.8	100.0	***	***	***	***
Male, 7th Grade Middle Class	22.2	100.0	***	***	***	***
Male, 7th Grade Lower Class	52.2	82.6	42.9	90.5	***	***
FEMALE - NINTH GRADE						
Female, 9th Grade Upper Class	25.0	75.0	***	***	***	***
Female, 9th Grade Middle Class	36.4	72.8	***	***	***	***
Female, 9th Grade Lower Class	30.4	91.3	4.2	48.5	0.0	30.0

Table 23 (cont'd.)

Partial	Parent Adolescent Effect High Parent Priority	 High Pro-Parent Priority	 Medium Parent Priority	 Medium Pro-Parent Priority	 Low Parent Priority	 Low Pro-Parent Priority
MALE - NINTH GRADE						
Male, 9th Grade Upper Class	87.5	100.0	***	***	***	***
Male, 9th Grade Middle Class	57.9	94.7	***	***	***	***
Male, 9th Grade Lower Class	42.3	88.5	31.8	81.8	12.5	37.5
FEMALE - TWELFTH GRADE						
Female, 12th Grade Upper Class	16.7	66.7	***	***	***	***
Female, 12th Grade Middle Class	29.4	58.8	22.2	77.8	***	***
Female, 12th Grade Lower Class	45.5	77.3	4.5	27.2	0.0	23.1
MALE - TWELFTH GRADE						
Male, 12th Grade Upper Class	12.5	60.0	***	***	***	***
Male, 12th Grade Middle Class	54.5	90.9	18.2	90.9	***	***
Male, 12th Grade Lower Class	36.4	81.9	13.0	60.8	0.0	46.2

[a] Where asterisks occur, the N is too small (below 10) to make a judgment.



SOCIAL CLASS BY HIGH PARENT ADOLESCENT AFFECT

Figure 8 Parent Priority by Grade Level, High Parent Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Social Class

diagramatically illustrated in figure 9. In other words, the original difference between males and females in terms of parent and pro-parent orientations is reestablished. The differences between males and females is equally clear in the ninth grade. However, the dramatic difference between twelfth grade males and females (cf. figure 8) sustains for the pro-parent priority preference. Upper class twelfth grade boys are less pro-parent than their female counterparts while middle class twelfth grade boys are more pro-parent than middle class twelfth grade girls. In both figures 8 and 9, nonetheless, there is clear evidence of a merging of orientations in the lower class.

Table 23 does enable an assessment of the effect of levels of parent adolescent affect in the lower class (ninth and twelfth grades only). Figure 10 illustrates the effect of the quality of the adolescent's relationships with his parents. It is clear that, as the degree of parental affect decreases, the degree of pro-parent priority also decreases. It may be expected that if this information were available for the upper and middle social classes that similar patterns would emerge.

It is now appropriate to summarize the effects of social class on the interrelationships seen among parent adolescent affect, grade level, and sex in explaining the salience hierarchy. In what ways, if any, has social class altered these relationships?

1. Social class alters the relationship between grade level, sex, and the assignment of priority to parents in several ways.

    a. In the upper class, the relative proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents by sex and grade level assumes the following order (in contrast to the ordering of the previous relationships):[7]

        (1) 9th grade boys,
        (2) 7th grade girls,
        (3) 7th grade boys,
        (4) 9th grade girls,
        (5) 12th grade girls, and
        (6) 12th grade boys.

    b. In the middle class, the relative proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents

---

[7] The ordering of the relationship between grade level and sex in previous analysis has taken the following form:

(1) 7th grade boys,
(2) 7th grade girls,
(3) 9th grade boys,
(4) 12th grade boys,
(5) 12th grade girls,
(6) 9th grade girls.

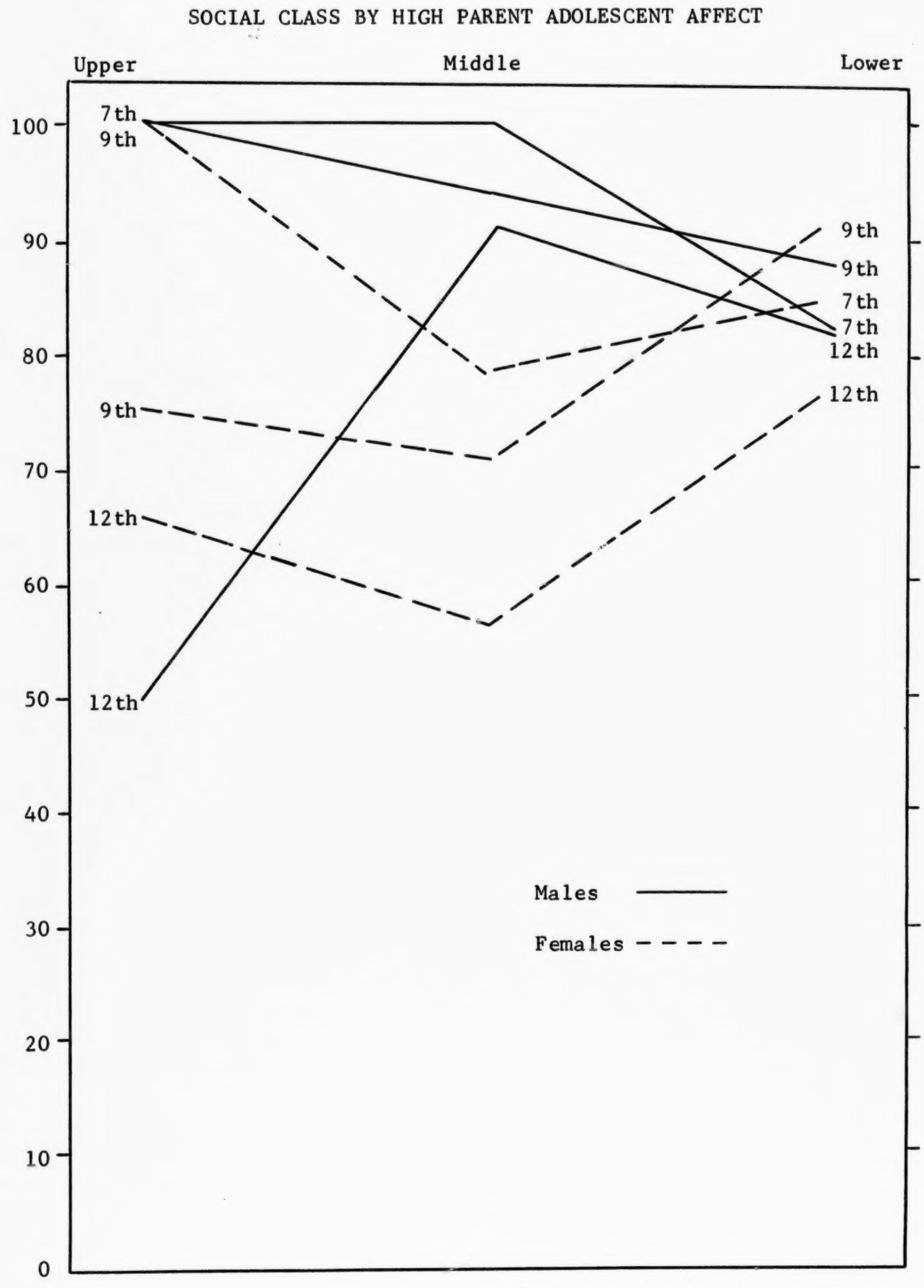


Figure 9 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, High Parent Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Social Class

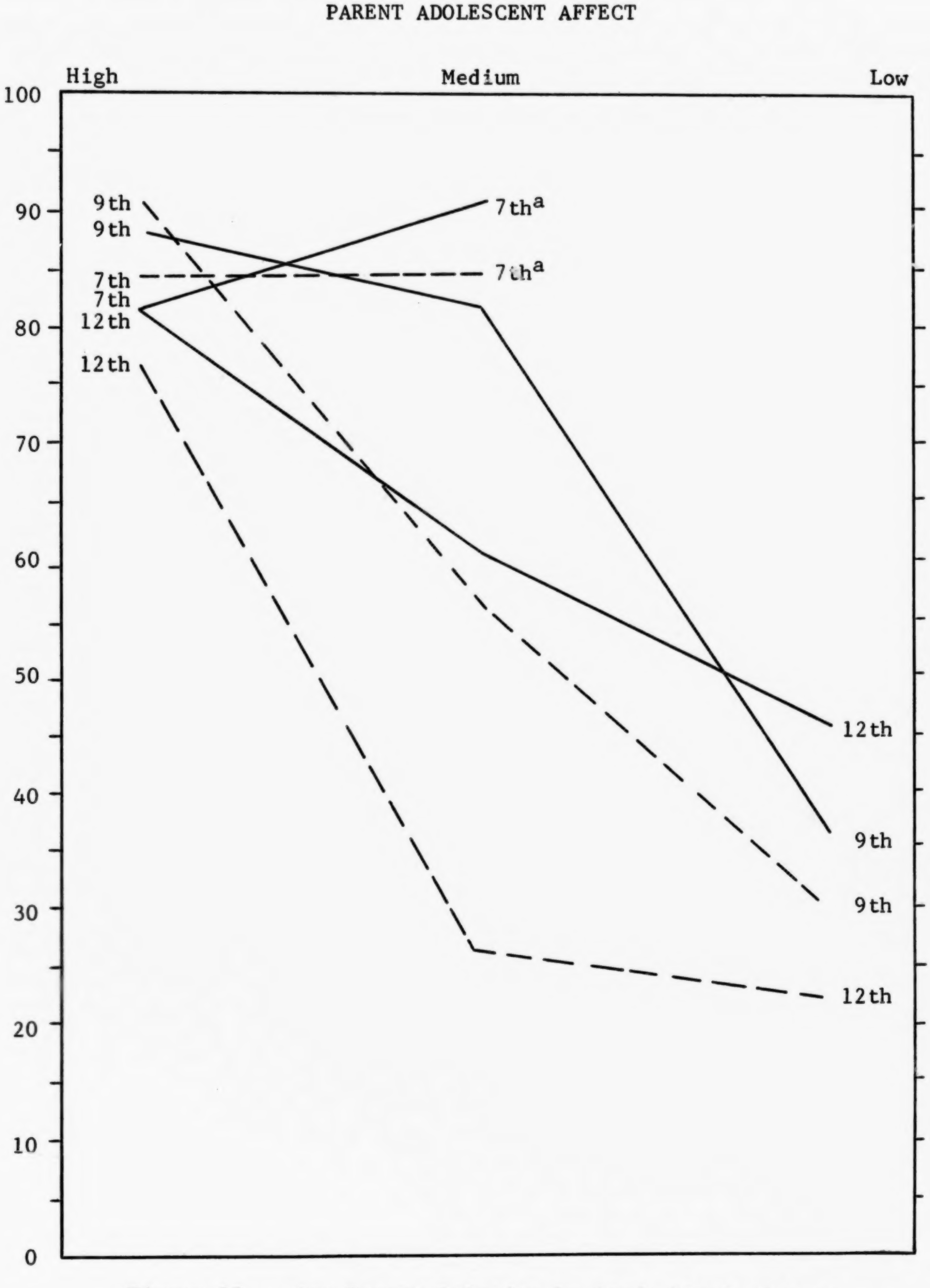


Figure 10 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent Adolescent Affect, Sex, and Lower Class

[a]The N is too small to continue the diagram at this point.

by sex and grade level assumes the following order (in contrast to the previous order):

(1) 7th grade girls,
(2) 9th grade boys,
(3) 12th grade boys,
(4) 9th grade girls,
(5) 12th grade girls,
(6) 7th grade boys.

c. In the lower class, the relative proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents by sex and grade level assumes the following order:[8]

(1) 7th grade boys,
(2) 12th grade girls,
(3) 7th grade girls,
(4) 12th grade boys, and
(5) both 9th grade boys and girls.

2. Social class also alters the relationship between grade level, sex, and pro-parent priority in several ways.

a. In the upper class, two major differences appear:

(1) all seventh and ninth grade boys and seventh grade girls in the upper class are pro-parent in their reference set orientations; and
(2) twelfth grade boys in the upper class are less oriented to their parents than twelfth grade girls.

b. In the middle class, one major difference is apparent:

(1) all boys at all grade levels are more pro-parent than girls.

3. The relative quality of parent-adolescent affect is related to the proportion of adolescents who are pro-parent oriented in the lower class: the lower the degree of parental affect, the lower the degree of pro-parent priority.

a. Even so, the effect of grade level and sex is slightly altered by the effect of the lower class at the lowest level of parental affect: twelfth grade males are more pro-parent than ninth grade males and both ninth and twelfth grade females.

The situation variable has been seen to have a significant effect on the pattern of the salience hierarchy. It is now appropriate to consider the effect of the situation on the relationships analyzed in the preceding few pages.

---

[8] In this case, however, the differences are not significant.

Table 24 attempts to discover the interrelationship between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy controlling for both grade level and the situation effect. It may be noted that this table also presents a pro-parent percentage; that is, those who either assign priority to their best friends or those who see both their parents and best friends at equal levels of salience. Several rather clear conclusions emerge. Comparing the differences between those who did not change and those who did in the seventh grade, it is evident that at the pro-parent preference level the patterns and proportions are very similar. Although parent priority is weakened little among nonchangers in the seventh grade (71.7 to 64.5 per cent),[9] the level of parent-adolescent affect has considerable effect on parent priority among changers. Whereas 60 per cent are parent oriented who have a high degree of parental affect, about 40 per cent prefer their parents at medium and low levels of parent-adolescent affect. Similarly, there is little difference between changers and nonchangers among those who are pro-parent in the ninth grade. Here, however, the significance of parent-adolescent affect is more pronounced. Among those who changed, for example, 84.6 per cent see themselves as having a good relationship with their parents while less than 40 per cent among those with a poor relationship do. As can be seen, among ninth grade adolescents who assign priority to their parents, the effect of parent-adolescent affect levels and the choice patterns in hypothetical situations is clear. Parent priority among adolescents with high parent relationships is shared by about 52 per cent whereas about 27 per cent assign priority to their parents in medium parent relationships. The percentage of adolescents preferring their parents who changed in differing situations is reduced from 38 per cent to about 13 per cent when the effect of parent-adolescent affect levels are considered. In the twelfth grade, the significance of medium and low levels of parent-adolescent affect is seen in the changer category both among those who are pro-parent (73.4 to 37.8 per cent) and those who prefer their parents (35.9 to 3.7 per cent). The patterns discussed above are illustrated in figure 11. In overall perspective, four substantive conclusions are apparent.

1. Grade level considerably reduces the proportion of adolescents who assign priority to their parents (from 71.4 per cent in the seventh grade, 52.2 per cent in the ninth grade, to 36.4 per cent in the twelfth grade).
    a. The effect of the situations further reduces parent priority in the seventh and ninth grades by 12 to 14 per cent.
    b. These findings sustain in spite of a high degree of parent-adolescent affect.

---

[9] The N is much too small among those who remained parent oriented and who had a low quality parent-adolescent relationship to make a judgment.

Table 24 Salience Hierarchy by Parent-Adolescent Relationship by Grade Level by Effect of Situations

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Relationship								
	High			Medium			Low		
	N	%		N	%		N	%	
SEVENTH GRADE: REMAINED PARENT ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION									
Parent oriented	(66)	71.7	94.5	(20)	64.5	93.5	(2)	33.3	66.6
Parents/BF	(21)	22.8		(9)	29.0		(2)	33.3	
BF oriented	(5)	5.4		(2)	6.5		(2)	33.3	
Total	(92)			(31)			(6)[a]		
SEVENTH GRADE: REMAINED BEST FRIEND ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION[a]									
SEVENTH GRADE: CHANGED IN DIFFERING SITUATIONS									
Parent oriented	(122)	60.1	92.6	(39)	39.8	83.7	(20)	40.8	83.7
Parents/BF	(66)	32.5		(43)	43.9		(21)	42.9	
BF oriented	(15)	7.4		(16)	16.3		(8)	16.3	
Total	(203)			(98)			(49)		
NINTH GRADE: REMAINED PARENT ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION									
Parent oriented	(12)	52.2	91.3	(3)	27.3	72.8	(2)	40.0	80.0
Parents/BF	(9)	39.1		(5)	45.5		(2)	40.0	
BF oriented	(2)	8.7		(3)	27.3		(1)	20.0	
Total	(23)			(11)			(5)[a]		
NINTH GRADE: REMAINED BEST FRIEND ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION									
Parent oriented	(1)	11.1	55.5	(1)	6.3	68.8	(1)	8.3	41.6
Parents/BF	(4)	44.4		(10)	62.5		(4)	33.3	
BF oriented	(4)	44.4		(5)	31.3		(7)	58.3	
Total	(9)[a]			(16)			(12)		

Table 24 (cont'd.)

Salience Hierarchy	Parent Adolescent Relationship								
	High			Medium			Low		
	N	%		N	%		N	%	
NINTH GRADE: CHANGED IN DIFFERING SITUATIONS									
Parent oriented	(59)	38.1	84.6	(26)	20.5	74.8	(10)	13.3	40.0
Parents/BF	(72)	46.5		(69)	54.3		(20)	26.7	
BF oriented	(24)	15.5		(32)	25.2		(45)	60.0	
TWELFTH GRADE: REMAINED PARENT ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION									
Parent oriented	(8)	36.4	81.9	(4)	44.4		(1)	---	
Parents/BF	(10)	45.5		(0)	---		-	---	
BF oriented	(4)	18.2		(5)	55.6		-	---	
Total	(22)			(9)			(1)[a]		
TWELFTH GRADE: REMAINED BEST FRIEND ORIENTED REGARDLESS OF SITUATION[a]									
TWELFTH GRADE: CHANGED IN DIFFERING SITUATIONS									
Parent oriented	(46)	35.9	73.4	(16)	12.9	57.3	(3)	3.7	37.8
Parents/BF	(48)	37.5		(55)	44.4		(28)	34.1	
BF oriented	(34)	26.6		(53)	42.7		(51)	62.2	
Total	(128)			(124)			(82)		

[a] The N is too small for reasonable comparison purposes.

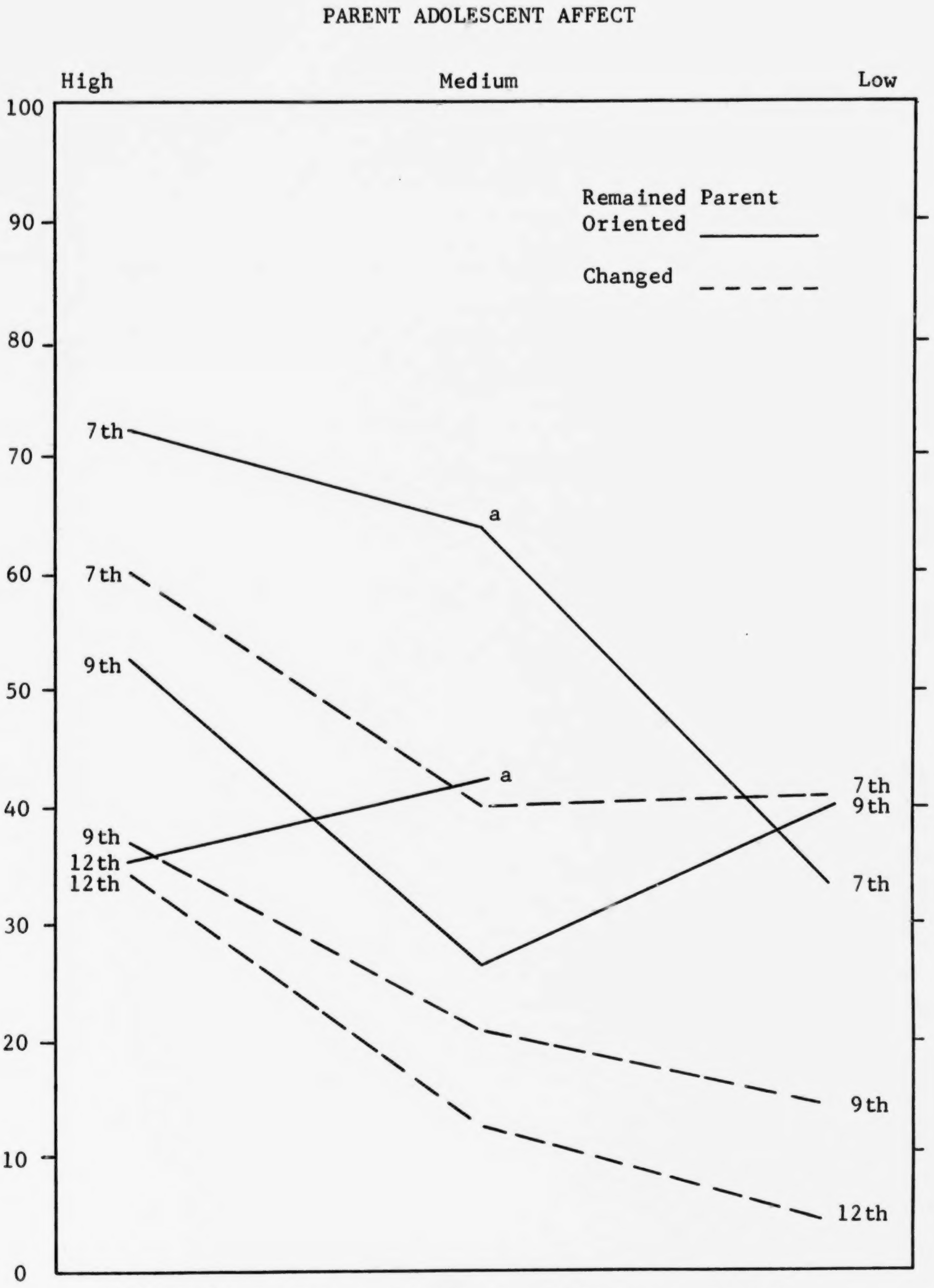


Figure 11 Parent Priority by Grade Level, Parent Adolescent Affect, and Situational Effect

[a]The N is too small to continue the diagram at this point.

2. Grade level appears to have only a minimal effect on the proportion of adolescents who are pro-parent (94.5 per cent in the seventh grade, 91.3 per cent in the ninth grade, and 81.9 per cent in the twelfth grade).

    a. The effect of the situations is also minimal (2 to 9 per cent).

    b. It appears that two factors are operating in this case:

        (1) pro-parent priority is more reasonable in upper grade levels while parent priority is less reasonable; and
        (2) adolescents with a high degree of parent-adolescent affect at higher grade levels see no reason to differentiate between their parents and best friends.

3. In the seventh grade, this grade level alone is more significant than either the situations or the quality of parent-adolescent affect.

4. The level of parent-adolescent affect has the most promounced effect in the ninth and twelfth grades. That is, the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the proportion of adolescents who are pro-parent in their hierarchical preferences among both nonchangers (across situations) and changers.

The above findings remain to be seen in the context of sex. Does sex continue to have an influence on the salience hierarchy when grade level, parent-adolescent affect, and the effect of situations are controlled?[10]

The data appears to indicate that the seventh grade is a more important factor than either sex or the situation. There is little difference among the nonchangers between male and female adolescents in both the parent priority (females - 70.6 per cent, males - 70.9 per cent) and pro-parent priority categories (females - 92.2 per cent, males - 96.4). Similarly, there is little difference among the changers. While parent orientation is lower among the changers for both males and females, this difference (between nonchangers and changers) is eliminated when the equal salience category is added. The patterns in the ninth grade are somewhat different. Males are consistently more parent and pro-parent oriented than females regardless of the situational effect. The difference is most pronounced among those who are

---

[10] The N becomes much too small when social class is introduced; therefore, it is not possible to present the third order relationships controlling for grade level, situation effect, sex, and social class. As the table stands, it is not possible to assess the effect of medium and low parental affect on those who remained parent oriented across situations.

Table 25 Parent Priority and Pro-Parent (Parent/Best Friend) Priority by Sex, Grade Level, and Effect of Situations (percentages only)

Partial	Parent Adolescent Affect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority
FEMALE - SEVENTH GRADE						
Female, 7th Grade Chose parent option	70.6	92.2	64.7	88.2	***	***[a]
Female, 7th Grade Changed	55.0	90.0	32.3	80.7	36.4	81.9
MALE - SEVENTH GRADE						
Male, 7th Grade Chose parent option	70.9	96.4	58.8	94.1	***	***
Male, 7th Grade Changed	61.9	94.4	44.4	84.1	44.4	81.4
FEMALE - NINTH GRADE						
Female, 9th Grade Chose parent option	46.2	92.4	***	***	***	***
Female, 9th Grade Changed	25.3	79.3	7.5	61.3	11.1	38.9
MALE - NINTH GRADE						
Male, 9th Grade Chose parent option	62.5	93.8	***	***	***	***
Male, 9th Grade Changed	52.6	90.2	35.6	86.3	13.3	42.6

Table 25 (cont'd.)

Partial	Parent Adolescent Effect					
	High		Medium		Low	
	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority	Parent Priority	Pro-Parent Priority
FEMALE - TWELFTH GRADE						
Female, 12th Grade Chose parent option	33.3	77.7	***	***	***	***
Female, 12th Grade Changed	33.3	66.6	9.1	49.1	2.4	26.2
MALE - TWELFTH GRADE						
Male, 12th Grade Chose parent option	60.0	100.0	***	***	***	***
Male, 12th Grade Changed	37.3	78.5	16.4	63.0	4.5	45.4

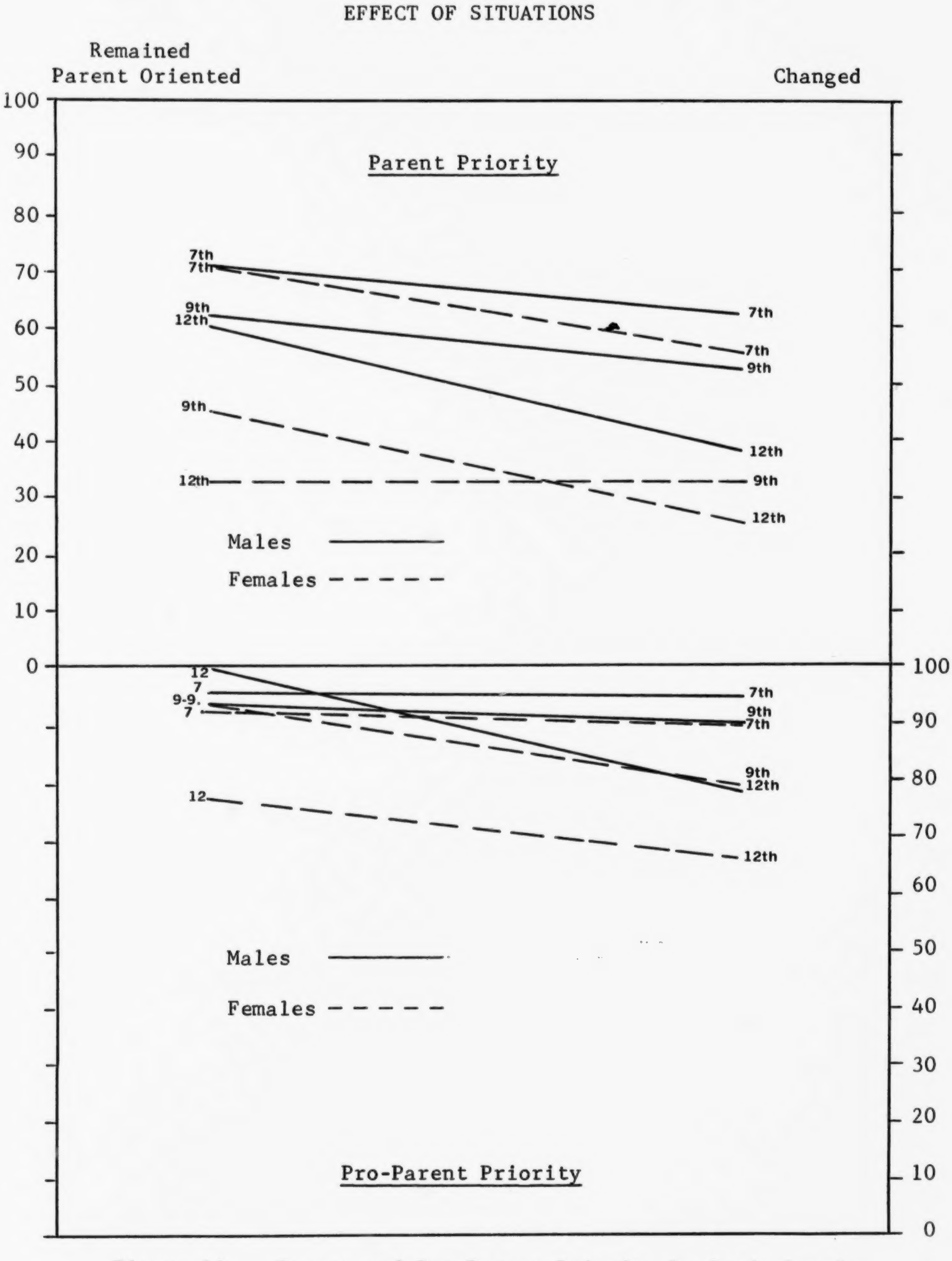


Figure 12 Parent and Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level, Situational Effect, and Sex

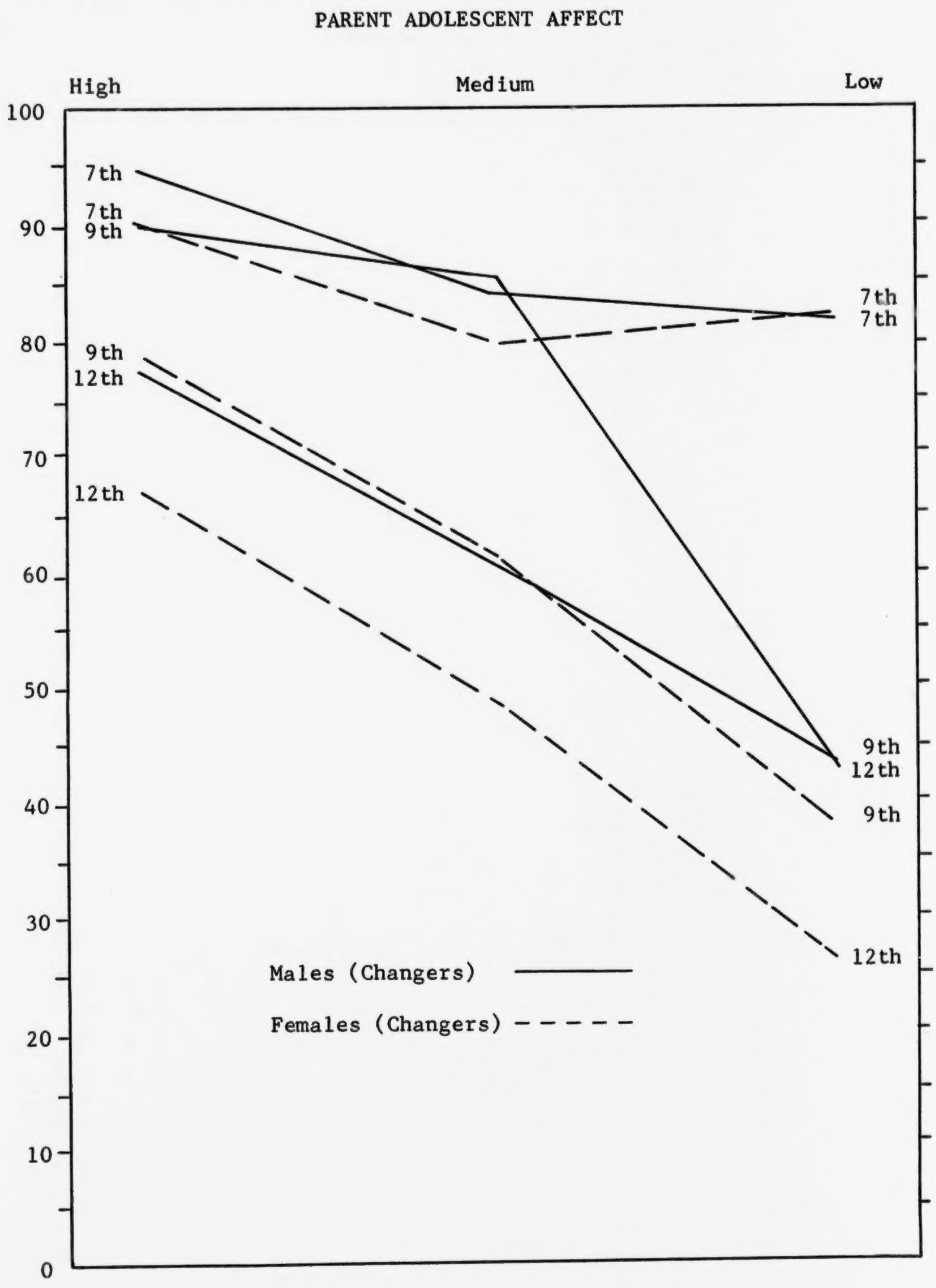


Figure 13 Pro-Parent Priority by Grade Level Changers Due to Effect of Situations, Parent Adolescent Affect, and Sex

parent oriented in the changed category (females - 25.3 per cent, males - 52.6 per cent). It may also be seen that the situation has more effect on females in the ninth grade than it does on males. In the twelfth grade, adolescent males opted for their parents across situations considerably more often than did their female counterparts. In this case, however, the effect of changing choice options has greater effect on males than it does females. Figure 12 illustrates these relationships.

When the effect of the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is introduced, the anticipated pattern obtains: the lower the degree of parental affect, the lower the degree of pro-parent priority. Again the level of parental affect is of lesser significance in the seventh grade and of considerable significance in the ninth and twelfth grades. These patterns are illustrated in figure 13.

The overall significance of the situation as a predictor of the salience hierarchy during adolescence must be seen as minimal when grade level, parent-adolescent affect, sex, and social class are considered. The patterned relationships among these latter variables in their common connection to the salience hierarchy seems to indicate that hypothetical situations cannot explain the variations in the hierarchical preferences among youth. Indeed, the decisions reflected in the many situations (and their reversals) introduced to the adolescent indicate considerable changes in the choice options of youth from one situation to another. Even so, the hierarchical preferences remain essentially the way they are.

We have considered the third order relationships in some detail. It remains to determine the independent and relative predictive efficiency of one variable in the prediction of the salience hierarchy controlling for the average effect of one or more other variables.

Standardization

The standardized relationships among the predictor variables are presented in Tables 26-28. Table 26 indicates that sex and parent-adolescent affect remain significant predictors of salience (-.26 and .41 respectively). The perceived ability and desire of referents to help in deciding on goals no longer has anything to do with salience. The effect of the situation is not altered by either sex or parent-adolescent affect and the situation in Table 28. It is apparent again that parent-adolescent affect is the most efficient predictor of salience (gamma - .4620). Thus, in terms of the average effect of each predictor on the other, three variables emerge as the primary predictors of salience: sex, grade level, and parent-adolescent affect. Social class and situational effect may be seen as weak predictors of salience. However, as has been carefully emphasized, there is considerable interaction among each of these predictor variables. The substance of this interaction is crucial in attempting to understand the salience hierarchy among youth - the average effect of each variable on the other, notwithstanding. Hypothesis 7 is not supported in this study without qualification.

Table 26 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Sex, Parent Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations[a]

	Salience Hierarchy						
	Standardized			Zero Order[b]			Total
	P[c]	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
	(P-Aa, RSH, ES, STDZD)[d]						
Sex:							
Females	29.3	39.8	30.8	29.8	39.6	30.6	(644)
Males	42.6	37.9	19.5	41.9	38.2	19.9	(657)
	Gamma = -.2592*			Gamma = -.2389*			
	(Sex, RSH, ES, STDZD)						
Parent Adolescent Affect:							
High	48.4	36.9	13.9	49.8	36.2	13.9	(638)
Medium	27.1	45.8	27.2	26.0	46.3	27.7	(423)
Low	22.1	33.3	44.7	16.2	32.9	50.8	(240)
	Gamma = .4085*			Gamma = .4775*			
	(Sex, P-Aa, ES, STDZD)						
Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals:							
A/D[e]	36.6	37.1	26.3	39.4	37.2	23.4	(650)
D/a	34.5	40.5	25.0	33.1	40.2	26.7	(520)
A/d-a/d	37.4	39.4	22.1	29.8	42.0	28.2	(131)
	Gamma = -.0095			Gamma = .1061			

Table 26 (cont'd.)

	Salience Hierarchy						
		Standardized			Zero Order		Total
	P[c]	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
	(Sex, P-Aa, RSH, STDZD)						
Effect of Situations:							
Primarily Parent	58.9	27.9	13.2	59.0	29.0	12.0	(200)
Primarily Best Friend	11.9	52.0	33.7	13.3	43.3	43.3	(60)
Changed	33.3	40.5	26.2	32.8	40.5	26.7	(1041)
	Gamma = .2719			Gamma = .2730			

[a] This table is percentaged across to facilitate the presentation of the standardized relationships. Consequently, the percentages should be compared down.

[b] The percentages that appear for the zero order relationships may not correspond directly to the original tables in that no answers in the cross tabulations are eliminated.

[c] P = Parents, P/BF = Parents/Best Friends, and BF = Best Friends.

[d] P-Aa = Quality of Parent Adolescent Affect, RSH = Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and ES = Effect of Situations.

[e] A/D = Ability and desire in helping decide on goals, D/a = desire but not ability, A/d-a/d = ability but not desire or neither ability nor desire.

*Gamma is significant at the .05 level or greater.

Table 27 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Grade Level, Parent Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations^{a}

	Salience Hierarchy						
		Standardized			Zero Order		Total
	P^{c}	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
(P-Aa, RSH, ES, STDZD)^{d}							
Grade Level:							
Seventh	51.2	36.5	12.3	55.6	34.2	10.2	(491)
Ninth	28.6	44.8	26.2	26.4	44.8	28.7	(435)
Twelfth	23.9	36.4	36.9	21.1	38.1	40.8	(375)
		Gamma = .3767*			Gamma = .4629*		
(GRADE, RSH, ES, STDZD)							
Parent Adolescent Affect:							
High	46.5	37.4	15.2	49.8	36.2	13.9	(638)
Medium	28.1	45.3	26.3	26.0	46.3	27.7	(423)
Low	20.3	33.0	44.5	16.2	32.9	50.8	(240)
		Gamma = .3868*			Gamma = .4775*		
(GRADE, P-Aa, ES, STDZD)							
Reference Set Help:							
A/D^{e}	35.2	36.4	28.1	39.4	37.2	23.4	(650)
D/a	36.0	40.2	23.7	33.1	40.2	26.7	(520)
A/d-a/d	33.9	44.4	19.2	29.8	42.0	28.2	(131)

Table 27 (cont'd.)

	Salience Hierarchy						
	Standardized			Zero Order			Total
	P[c]	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
	(GRADE, P-Aa, RSH, STDZD)						
Effect of Situation:							
Primarily Parents	46.9	29.9	16.5	59.0	29.0	12.0	
Primarily Best Friend	28.3	27.9	26.5	13.3	43.3	43.3	
Changed	34.3	40.2	25.4	32.8	40.5	26.7	
	Gamma = .1954			Gamma = .2730			

[a] This table is percentaged across to facilitate the presentation of the standardized relationships. Consequently, the percentages should be compared down.

[b] The percentages that appear for the zero order relationships may not correspond directly to the original tables in that no answers in the cross tabulations are eliminated.

[c] P = Parents, P/BF = Parents/Best Friends, and BF = Best Friends.

[d] P-Aa = Quality of Parent Adolescent Affect, RSH = Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and ES = Effect of situations.

[e] A/D = Ability and desire in helping decide on goals, D/a = desire but not ability, A/d-a/d = ability but not desire or neither ability nor desire.

*Gamma is significant at the .05 level or greater.

Table 28 Standardized and Zero Order Percentage Distributions: Salience Hierarchy by Index of Social Position, Parent Adolescent Affect, Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and the Effect of Situations.[a]

	Salience Hierarchy						
		Standardized			Zero Order[b]		Total
	P[c]	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
			(P-Aa, RSH, ES, STDZD)[d]				
ISP:							
I & II	33.8	33.9	23.8	43.5	35.3	21.2	(85)
III	42.5	35.3	20.5	40.9	36.4	22.7	(132)
IV & V	33.6	40.4	25.6	32.1	40.7	27.2	(312)
		Gamma = .0796			Gamma = .1457		
			(ISP, RSH, ES, STDZD)				
Parent Adolescent Affect:							
High	47.4	35.8	14.9	49.0	35.9	15.2	
Medium	23.6	44.8	29.3	23.2	46.9	29.9	
Low	13.7	19.8	44.4	12.9	29.0	58.1	
		Gamma = .4620*			Gamma = .5020*		
			(ISP, PAa, ES, STDZD)				
Reference Set Help:							
A/D[e]	35.1	37.4	25.0	37.8	37.5	24.7	(296)
D/a	37.3	38.7	24.0	33.8	39.4	26.8	(198)
A/d-a/d	35.8	38.5	11.3	34.3	45.7	20.0	(35)
		Gamma = -.0603			Gamma = .0437		

Table 28 (cont'd.)

	Salience Hierarchy						
		Standardized			Zero Order[b]		Total
	P[c]	P/BF	BF	P	P/BF	BF	N
	(ISP, PAa, RSH, STDZD)						
Effect of Situations:							
Primarily Parent	53.3	22.9	14.1	58.9	28.9	12.2	(90)
Primarily Best Friend	11.3	51.6	15.2	8.3	58.3	33.3	(24)
Changed	33.4	39.8	26.8	32.8	39.8	27.5	(415)
		Gamma = .3087			Gamma = .3028		

[a] This table is percentaged across to facilitate the presentation of the standardized relationships. Consequently, the percentages should be compared down.

[b] The percentages that appear for the zero order relationships may not correspond directly to the original tables in that no answers in the cross tabulations are eliminated.

[c] P = Parents, P/BF = Parents/Best Friends, and BF = Best Friends.

[d] P-Aa = Quality of Parent Adolescent Affect, RSH = Reference Set Help in Deciding on Goals, and ES = Effect of Situations.

[e] A/D = Ability and desire in helping decide on goals, D/a = desire but not ability, A/d-a/d = ability but not desire or neither ability nor desire.

*Gamma is significant at the .05 level or greater.

Conclusions

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of the findings in terms of the theoretical perspectives outlined in the first chapter. Therefore, it will be well to present the basic substantive conclusions which can be drawn from the analysis of this chapter.

1. Perceived reference set help in making decisions about goals is not an important factor in the determination of hierarchical preferences among youth when considered in relation to parent-adolescent affect, grade level, sex, and social class.

2. The choice patterns of adolescents do vary from situation to situation. Although those who chose the parent or best friend options across several situations are clearly more oriented to that referent, the majority of adolescents change their choice options in terms of the situation rather than their hierarchical preferences. The latter would indicate that the hypothetical situational dilemma is not a useful predictor of the salience hierarchy. The significance of the preceding assertion is clearly seen when parent-adolescent affect, grade level, sex, and social class are introduced.

3. The grade level hypothesis works well in explaining the hierarchical preferences among youth in spite of both sex and parent-adolescent affect: the higher the grade level, i.e., seventh, ninth, and twelfth, the lower the degree of parent preference.

4. The relative level of parent-adolescent affect is related to parent preference within each grade level: the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the degree of parent preference among youth.

5. The decrease in parent preference by increasing grade level and decreasing parent affect varies consistently for males and females: males are consistently more parent oriented than females. This difference is most pronounced in the ninth grade.

6. Several more specific conclusions may be made regarding the interrelationship among grade level, parent-adolescent affect, and sex in the prediction of the salience hierarchy.

   a. Grade level has only a minimal effect on the pro-parent orientations of youth.

   b. Pro-parent priority is most pronounced in the ninth and twelfth grades while parent priority is most pronounced in the seventh grade.

   c. Adolescents with a high degree of parent-adolescent affect see no reason to differentiate between their parents and best friends at the higher grade levels.

d. The level of parent-adolescent affect has the most pronounced effect in the ninth and twelfth grades: the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the degree of pro-parent orientation among ninth and twelfth graders.

e. The differences between adolescent boys and girls and between the three grades are more pronounced in the lower levels of parent-adolescent affect. However, the significance of parent-adolescent affect in the seventh grade is considerably less important.

7. The effect of social class is seen not in its independent prediction of the salience hierarchy but in its intervening influence on the relationship of grade level and sex to the salience hierarchy. Whereas the patterns of parent priority and pro-parent priority differed only slightly under the effect of grade level and sex, considerable differences are sustained when social class is introduced. Therefore, these must be considered separately.

   a. Parent Orientation

      (1) In the upper class, seventh grade girls are more parent oriented than seventh grade boys, while ninth grade boys are the most parent oriented. The parent orientations of ninth and twelfth grade girls and twelfth grade boys are considerably below the norm.[11]

      (2) In the middle class, seventh grade girls are the most parent oriented, while seventh grade boys are the least parent oriented. The other patterns are similar to the norm.[11]

      (3) In the lower class, the patterns observed between grade level, sex, and parent-adolescent affect are not significantly changed.

   b. Parent Orientation and Parent/Best Friend Orientation

      (1) In the upper class, all seventh and ninth grade boys and all seventh grade girls are pro-parent in their orientations. Twelfth grade boys are least pro-parent among their grade and sex counterparts. The remaining patterns are similar to the norm.[11]

---

[11] It must be emphasized that in each of these cases it is not possible to assess the effect of the quality of parent-adolescent affect. The findings presented are among those who see themselves as having a high quality relationship with their parents. It is anticipated that the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship would alter the relationships observed in the predicted way could it be considered.

(2) In the middle class, boys at all grade levels are considerably more pro-parent than girls at all grade levels.[12]

(3) In the lower class, the patterns observed between grade level, sex, and parent-adolescent affect are not significantly altered.

The basic question to which we now turn is the relationship of the above findings to the theoretical perspectives outlined in chapter one. This is the subject of the next section.

Discussion

The findings indicate that the relationship model is a useful theoretical perspective in the explanation of the salience hierarchy during adolescence. It will be recalled that the basic intent of the relationship model is that the hierarchical reference set preferences among youth cannot be adequately understood apart from the kind of relationship the adolescent perceives himself to have with his reference sets. In essence, how satisfying is the relationship to the adolescent? If, indeed, the relationship is seen as highly satisfying then the adolescent may be expected to rank this "self-other" relationship above others that are seen as less satisfying.

The relative importance of the relationship theoretical perspective is seen in the context of the previous formulations utilized in the assessment of parent and peer orientations: the grade level, goals, and situational hypotheses. In each case, it is concluded that the type of relationship the adolescent had with his reference sets is ignored. Furthermore, it is suggested that this missing dimension provides a conceptual shelter within which the other hypotheses can be subsumed. The studies of grade level, goals, and the effect of differing situations, indeed, support this assertion. In the case of peer influence, for example, adolescents who opt for their peers do so because of what they obtained by doing so, or because of what they would lose by not doing so. Similarly, studies of parental influence show that adolescents who are parent oriented are getting something particular from the relationship. In other words, the adolescent-referent relationship becomes an organizing principle for explaining the salience hierarchy. The point at which this approach becomes empirically and theoretically viable is in the hypothesis that the relative quality of the relationship must be considered in any consideration of salience among youth.

In terms of the model presented in chapter one, it is helpful at this point to note that the determination of the relative salience of a reference set includes: (a) the purpose and type of the relationships, (b) the quality of the relationship, (c) the effect of mediating factors, (d) the personality, and (e) the nature of the situation (see figure). The type (whether horizontal or vertical) and purpose (whether instrumental or expressive) of the relationship locates a given reference set in the influence posture as it relates to the influence on the adolescent. The quality of the relationship connotes such factors as understanding, interest and concern in the affairs of youth, communication, and attraction. Mediating factors include, for example, sex categories or social class. In the terms of the conceptual model presented in chapter one, personality is seen as the final filtering unit. Finally, the situation itself (where the individual is a position occupant) must be considered in the determinations of the influence of a given reference set.

---

[12] Ibid.

Given these considerations, we may now turn to the interconnection of the relationship model to the findings obtained.

As has been seen, grade level is a significant predictor of the salience hierarchy. In terms of a vast body of research, this is not surprising. Indeed, the school grade of the adolescent structures and limits the nature and context of his contact with his age-mates. In addition to being a social category, in other words, each grade level constitutes a particular configuration of age-mate relationships. It is in this latter sense, that grade level is most directly related to the relationship model. The adolescent's relationships with his "grade-peers" may be seen as primarily informal, horizontal, and expressive. Therefore, the more pronounced and significant these relationships become, the more probable the identification of the adolescent with his age-mates. In the seventh grade, the isolation and segregation of youth from adult society is minimal. Status and identity needs are only beginning to assert themselves. The significance of the adolescent's relationship with fellow seventh graders is consequently only of minimal importance. However, as the adolescent progressively moves through the various grade levels to the twelfth grade, the degree of youth isolation and segregation, the accentuation of common interests, and the significance of status and identity needs become increasingly more significant. Consequently, the significance of the adolescent's relationships with his age-mates is enhanced. This change in parent/peer orientations has been clearly documented in this study.

The point at which this theoretical perspective (the relationship model) parts company with previous formulations, however, is in the assumption that these changes constitute a rejection of parents. This is an overt oversimplification. In many respects, the adolescent's identification with his age-mates is simply an expansion of his social arena to include new sources of influence and a broader scope of relationship experience. A statement made earlier may be repeated here:

> The substance of frequent interaction and similarity of perspective or even a preference for peer associations does not in and of itself denote rejection of parents anymore than buying steak on Tuesday represents a wholesale rejection of hamburger.

In an attempt to asses this part of the relationship model, the provision for the assignment of equal salience to both parents and best friends was introduced rather than the traditional anti-parent procedures in previous formulations. Furthermore, it was seen necessary to ascertain the relative quality of the adolescent's relationship with his parents in order to evaluate the grade level hypothesis. The findings clearly support the utility of both of these theoretical assumptions. Grade level is seen to have little effect on the pro-parent (parent orientation and parent/best friend orientation) orientations of youth. In the seventh grade, as anticipated, greater priority is assigned to parents whereas in the ninth and twelfth grades the majority of youth are oriented to both their parents and best friends. It must be noted, however, that his finding is dependent on the relative quality of the parent-adolescent relationship. This leads us to a consideration of the importance of the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets.

It may be emphasized that the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets is seen as the "second factor" in the prediction of the salience hierarchy. This does not mean that the type and purpose of the relationship is a causal antecedent of the quality of the relationship. It merely means that the "path of influence" in the determination of salience moves from the structural to the interactional. In this case, from purpose and type to quality.

The basic assumption underlying the assertion that the quality of the relationship is an essential element in the prediction of salience is that the adolescent has socioemotional needs. The child has strong needs for intimacy, respect, appreciation, and nurturance which are largely met in the family context. Although many of these needs are fulfilled by the adolescent's associations with his age-mates, it is not reasonable to conclude that these are not longer important in the family context. Indeed, during adolescence the need for parental understanding and parent-adolescent rapport is more pronounced than ever. Thus, it is expected that adolescents who perceive their parents as understanding, willing to talk with them when they have a problem, fairly easy to talk to, and "in touch" will find less occasion to react against their parents and see less reason to differentiate between parental and friend societies. As predicted, the relative level of parent-adolescent affect is found to be significantly related to pro-parent and parent only preference within each grade level: the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the degree of parent preference among youth. The overwhelming majority of those adolescents who have a high degree of parent-adolescent affect are pro-parent in their preferences. In contrast, when the qualities in a good relationship are weak or absent in the teenager's relationship with his parents, a large proportion assign priority to their best friends. Among seventh graders, the relative quality of parental affect has only a minimum influence. This seems to indicate that seventh graders have yet to feel the full impact of youth culture. In addition, it is probable that few seventh graders have had the time to build intensive friendships in the school. Consequently, most seventh graders are parent oriented, the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship notwithstanding. In the ninth and twelfth grades, however, the significance of the level of parent-adolescent affect is very pronounced. In other words, where the potential for parental rejection is most intense, the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is the primary predictor of pro-parent orientation.

It must therefore be concluded that the basic feature of the relationship model - the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets - must be introduced as a mediating or predictive variable in any consideration of the salience hierarchy.

Sex and social class are introduced into the relationship model as mediating factors. Sex is seen as a cultural ideology mediated by the family while social class is seen as a linking condition of the family to the social arena in which it resides. Each factor is discussed in turn below.

Sex is seen in one study (Goodman, 1966) to be slightly related to parent and peer orientations. Females were seen to be slightly more parent oriented than boys. Brittain (1963) also obtained a similar relationship. Even so, the cultural milieu seems to pose the traditional feminine role as dependent, docile, and obedient. The adolescent girl, indeed, may be expected to be considerably more parent oriented than her sex counterpart. In the context of the relationship model, sex is seen as less important than the quality of the relationship in the prediction of salience. It was assumed that if a high affective relationship existed between the adolescent and his parents that the sex of the adolescent would not make any difference. At best, it is seen as a mediating factor. Accordingly, sex does act as a mediating influence in the prediction of salience. In contrast to the anticipated relationship, however, males are found to be consistently more parent oriented than females at all grade levels and all levels of parent-adolescent affect. The difference in parent orientation is seen to be most pronounced in the ninth grade. Only one explanation for this unexpected finding seems plausible. Boys have had greater freedom than girls. Parents are less restrictive in their "posture" toward boys. Girls, in contrast, have had less freedom and more restrictions. Currently, however, girls are the symbol of freedom, expression, and sexual maturity. Perhaps in seeking greater freedom, the girls' parents are overresponding. In consequence, the adolescent girl is less responsive to enhanced parental requirements and regulations. Perhaps, the ninth grade girl is the symbol of the changing feminine role.

Goodman (1966) also found that social class is slightly related to the salience hierarchy. Upper class adolescents were more parent oriented than lower class adolescents. Again, however, the differences obtained were not substantial. No other research to the writer's knowledge has assessed the significance of social class in relationship to the hierarchical preferences among youth.

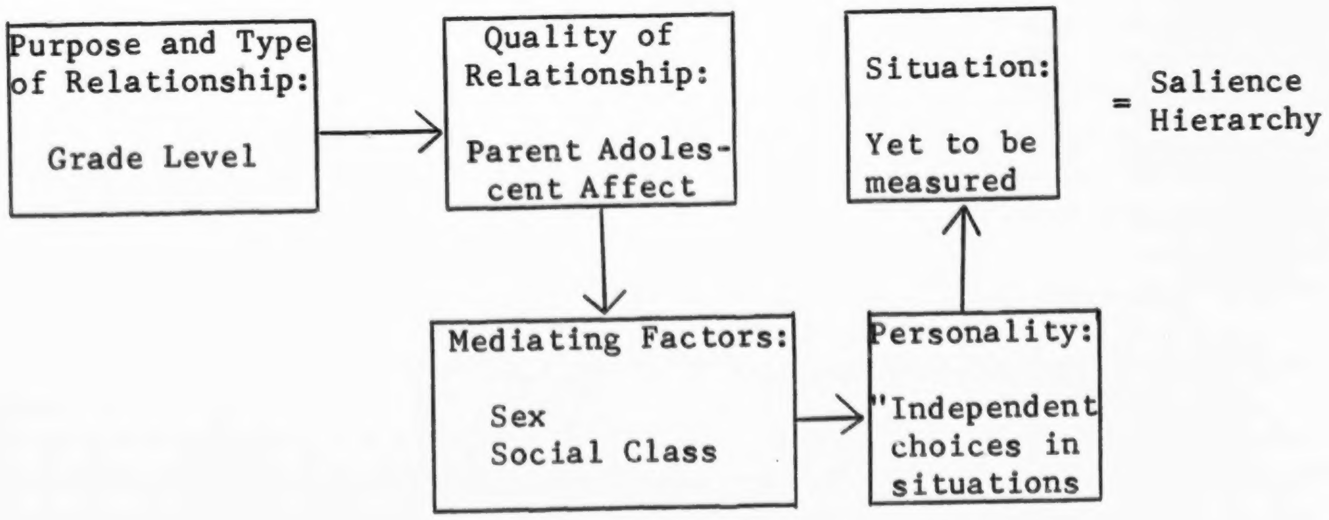
In this study, social class is found to be a weak predictor of the salience hierarchy: the higher the social class, the higher the parent orientation. However, the significance of social class emerged after grade level, parent-adolescent affect, and sex had been controlled. When social class is introduced at this point the relationships among these three predictor variables become considerably complicated. The changes occur in the upper and middle social classes. Two conclusions appear reasonable. The upper class families seem to be having the greatest difficulty with their older adolescents, girls particularly. The seventh graders in the upper class seem to fit the traditional expectations. This relationship is evident in both the parent and pro-parent oriented groups. In the middle class, in contrast, the original relationship of sex to the salience hierarchy is extremely pronounced: all boys are more pro-parent regardless of grade level than girls regardless of grade level. The most appropriate conclusion here is that middle class families are experiencing greater difficulty with their daughters at all grade levels than they are with their sons. Thus, it is seen that both sex and social class are significant mediating variables.

The effect of personality on the salience hierarchy may be implicitly seen in the influence of choices in various situations. Adolescents who changed their choice options, in spite of the cross-pressures of their best friends and parents, are reflecting, in part, their personal value frame, e.g., the character situation, or their goals, e.g., the curriculum situation. These somewhat "independent" decisions (choice options), however, do not seem to indicate an alteration of their hierarchical preferences. In other words, it would appear that the situation doesn't alter preferences or orientations as much as it does choices. It must be emphasized, moreover, that these are hypothetical situations. The effect of real, actual situations on the choice and preference patterns of youth remains to be measured. Indeed, it may be anticipated that a sequencing or series of actual situations will alter preferences. This postulate is endemic to socialization theory. Surely, the situations of the seventh grade are sequentially related to those in later grades. Thus, a substantive measurement of the effect of various situations on the hierarchical preferences among youth must involve two things: (1) the observation of situations that correspond as closely as possible to reality, and (2) a longitudinal analysis of the sequential influence of various situations.

In perspective, the relationship model has fared rather well in the explanation of the salience hierarchy. It has been seen that the type and purpose of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets is important in assessing the adolescent's relative preferences. Although the grade level approach has been widely documented in previous studies, it has been shown that this conception fits rather neatly into the relationship model. In contrast to previous research, it has also been seen that the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his reference sets is essential in determining the relative influence of the type and purpose of his relationships. In other words, the degree of interpenetration of the influences of parents and best friends cannot be assessed without an evaluation of the satisfactions gained from the relationships. Indeed, it may be assumed that the adolescent has a "good" relationship with his best friends - else they would not be best friends. However, it has now been demonstrated that the "goodness" of the parent-adolescent relationship must be considered in order to explain the interpenetrations and linkages of reference sets in the world of the adolescents. Similarly, it has been clearly seen that sex and social class are significant mediating factors.

It will be recalled that the relationship model is a specialized aspect of a more general model of developmental socialization. The assessment of the relative influence of parents and peers during adolescence represents only one aspect of socialization - the structure and process of social influence. The ways in which learning takes place and the influence of the personality of the socializee are not considered in this study. Furthermore, the assessment of the influence of reference sets (seen as filtering agencies in this model) is limited to aspects of the structure and conditions characterizing the reference set. Nonetheless, the connection of the relationship model to socialization in a developmental perspective is clear theoretically. Its significance as a predictor of the salience hierarchy has been demonstrated empirically.

The configuration of factors in the prediction of the hierarchical preferences among youth is illustrated below.


Purpose and Type of Relationship:
Grade Level
Quality of Relationship:
Parent Adolescent Affect
Situation:
Yet to be measured
= Salience Hierarchy
Mediating Factors:
Sex
Social Class
Personality:
"Independent choices in situations

It may be emphasized that the variables in the above model are not presented as a causal sequence model. At best, they represent a causal configuration which is another way of saying that they are all causally related to each other. Although causal sequencing is unreasonable and unnecessary in a model where the relationships lack an obvious longitudinal character, it appears that the patterns of the relationships follow the "path" presented. The significance of this path has been clearly seen in the patterns and trends in the interrelationships among the predictor variables in predicting the salience hierarchy.

The final chapter includes a summary of the report, the basic limitations of the study, and some suggestions for future research.

Summary

Four alternative explanations of the salience hierarchy are considered: grade level, reference set help in deciding on goals, situation effect, and parent-adolescent affect. In addition, the relationship between the salience hierarchy, social class, and sex is analyzed. With the exception of reference set help and social class each has been shown to be significantly related to the salience hierarchy. The interconnections among these predictors are considered next. The point of departure is hypothesis 7.

> The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is a more efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy than grade level, sex, social class, the type of situation, and the combined helping potentials of referents

The intercorrelations among the six predictor variables are first analyzed and it is found that of fifteen interrelationships, four are significantly correlated: (a) grade level and parent-adolescent affect, (b) grade level and situational effect, (c) parent-adolescent affect and reference set help, and (d) parent-adolescent affect and situational effect.

The next section of the chapter considers the third order relationships among the predictor variables and the salience hierarchy. The perceived ability and desire of reference sets to help decide on goals is seen as a weak and inefficient predictor of salience when other predictors are controlled. The effect of the situation varies as well by sex, social class, and grade level. Those who remained parent oriented across situations are slightly more often male than female, lower grade level than higher, and upper class than lower. However, the majority of youth changed their choice options. Among those who did, the patterns of hierarchical preference remained essentially unchanged.

The third order relationships between parent-adolescent affect and the salience hierarchy controlling for each of the other predictors are clearly most important. The grade level hypothesis is seen as an efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy in spite of high parent-adolescent affect or sex: the higher the grade level, the lower the degree of parent preference. Similarly, the relative level of parent-adolescent affect is positively related to parent preference within each grade level: the lower the degree of parent-adolescent affect, the lower the degree of parent preference. Thirdly, males are found to be consistently more parent oriented than females within the context of the decrease in parent preference by increasing grade level and decreasing parent affect. This difference is seen to be most pronounced in the ninth grade. When social class is introduced, these relationships are altered somewhat in the middle and upper social classes. The higher grades for both males and females tend to react rather dramatically against parents in the upper class, while the seventh graders (of both sexes) are much more traditional (parent oriented) than the norm. Middle class adolescent girls of all grade levels are considerably more best friend oriented than middle class adolescent boys.

The average effect of each predictor on the other (standardization) suggests that both grade level and parent-adolescent affect sustain as efficient predictors of the salience hierarchy. Therefore, hypothesis 7 must be rejected as it stands.

In overall perspective, it is concluded that the relationship model is a useful theoretical approach to the explanation of the salience hierarchy during adolescence.

Chapter 3

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The thesis upon which this report is based has enabled the test of specified aspects of a general model of developmental socialization. The primary advantage in the development of a general conceptual frame of reference is seen in the enhancement of the possibility of integrative research. The empirical study of aspects of the relationship model provides a springboard for additional research within a common and integrated conceptual shelter.

The second accomplishment of this study seems to be the clarification of the relative and independent influence of parents and peers during adolescence. The assumption, of research and theory alike, that adolescents have rejected their parents and isolated themselves into a miniature society has been shown to be ill considered and overly simplistic. Previous research clearly "loaded" the results by limiting the choice options of the adolescent to either his parents or peers. The youth in essence was forced to choose one or the other. Under these conditions, it is reasonable for the adolescent to choose his peers. The commonality of interests, aspirations, and problems among youth are pronounced. Furthermore, the parent-youth and youth-peer social configurations are simply different kinds of relationships. If the parent-youth relationship is a satisfying one, this relationship does not pose an imposition on youth-peer relationships. The adolescent may opt for his peers without either "violating" the *essence* of his parents' wishes or "hurting" the parent-youth relationship. Therefore, the forced option for parents or peers does not necessarily represent a rejection of one or the other. This study enabled the adolescent to assign equal importance to both his parents and best friends. It has been demonstrated that this response category is essential in measuring the hierarchical preferences of youth, particularly at the higher grade levels.

Previous research dealing with the explanation of the salience hierarchy during adolescence has also neglected the most central element of social life: people have relationships with other people and the satisfaction that is gained from these relationships has much to do with their continuation. Indeed, it has been shown that the kind of relationship the adolescent has with his parents is an important factor in the determination of his reference set orientations - sex, social class, grade level, goals, and various situations notwithstanding.

It must be emphasized that *this report is based on a small part of the data obtained*. In other words, much of the "meat" of the analysis remains to be done. Subsequent analysis will test in considerable detail the frame of reference concerning the structure and process of social influence during adolescence. Three basic areas will be of central interest: (a) the relative and independent influence of teachers and the school; (b) the effect of familial structure and process on adolescent attitudes and behaviors; and (c) the significance of consensus and dissensus of values between parents and adolescents. Each of these areas may be briefly noted. The analysis of the influence of teachers and the school will include: the exploration of the quality of the teacher-student relationship, the helping potential of teachers, the "areas" of greatest salience, e.g., occupational goals, academic performance, the effect of grades, adolescent school-orientation, curriculum relevance, equality of educational opportunity, labeling, participation in extracurricular activities, the adolescent's academic motivation, aspirations and expectations, and the adolescent's self concept. The analysis of family structure and process will involve an intensive assessment of the empirical significance of family size, sex composition, age and sex differentials between parents and siblings, religious and occupational histories, parental attitudes and perspectives, the emotive character of marital, parent-child, and sibling interaction, family cohesion and control, and family togetherness. The unique departure in this study is seen in: (a) the large constellation of familial factors to be considered within one conceptual frame of reference, and (b) the collection of data from several siblings and their parents thus enabling the comparison of responses to common stimuli. The third aspect of the analysis includes an intrafamilial assessment of similarity in value perspectives regarding six social arenas: additional schooling, future family roles, occupational values and goals, current student, peer, and family roles. This aspect of the study will provide a specific test of a basic assumption of socialization theory - similarity and congruence in values and perspectives.

Recommendations at this point in the study are somewhat premature in that this report deals with only limited aspects of the overall study. Even so, several recommendations appear appropriate.

1. Additional research is needed on the factors that facilitate satisfying relationships between socializees and socializers. Although this part of the analysis has focused on parent-adolescent relationships, it seems reasonable to assume that these findings have implications for other types of relationships including teacher-student. Although the teacher-student relationship is primarily instrumental in function and formal and vertical in type, the quality of the relationship the adolescent has with his teachers appears endemic to the learning and maturation process. Furthermore, the assessment of the relative and independent effect of the quality of the teacher-student relationship in the context of the parent-adolescent and adolescent-peer relationship is also important. The continuation of the present research project will provide important answers to these questions.

2. It has been seen that the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship is an important factor in assessing the reference set priorities of youth. This finding provides strong support for an energetic program of parent education in child rearing. Such a program might include summer or evening credit workshops. Although it is often difficult to get parents involved in "educational life," greater effort

must be given to facilitate parental participation in the education of their youth. This idea might be operationalized in after-school communication seminars involving teachers, students, and their parents. In many respects, however, the parents of this generation are less important than the parents of tomorrow's generation. Therefore, it is important to introduce family life education into the school systems on a nation-wide scale. The present organization and structure of family life education can only have a limited impact due to its overemphasis on sex education and preparation for marriage. Family life education must give greater emphasis to child development, child rearing, and familial interaction over the family life cycle.

Given these considerations, it is also recommended that teachers be required to have a more sophisticated training in child development, adolescent problems, techniques of facilitative teacher-student interaction, and counseling theory. The qualified teacher must have more than knowledge of his subject material and tutorial skills. If the teacher is incapable of _relating_ to the child (or youth), not only will the learning process be hindered but the alienation of youth will be enhanced.

In conclusion, it is suggested that the results of this study be made widely available to all who work with youth.

REFERENCES

Anderson, Theodore R., and Morris Zelditch, Jr.
1968 A Basic Course in Statistics (Second Edition). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston

Becker, Wesley C.
1964 "Consequences of Different Kinds of Parental Discipline." Pp. 169-208 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research I. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Bowerman, C.E., and J.W. Kinch.
1959 "Changes in Family and Peer Orientation of Children Between the Fourth and Tenth Grades." Social Forces 37 (February): 206-211.

Brittain, Clay V.
1963 "Adolescent Choices and Parent-Peer Cross-Pressures." American Sociological Review 28 (June): 385-391.

Campbell, John D.
1964 "Peer Relations in Childhood." Pp. 289-322 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research II. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Cervantees, Lucius F.
1965 "Family Background, Primary Relationships, and the High School Dropout." Journal of Marriage and Family 27 (May): 218-224.

Chilman, Catherine.
1966 Growing Up Poor. Washington: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Clausen, John A.
1965 Family Size and Birth Order as Influences upon Socialization and Personality: Bibliography and Abstracts. An unpublished report of a work group to the committee on Socialization and Social Structure of the Social Science Research Council.
1966 "Family Structure, Socialization and Personality." Pp. 1-53 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research II. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Clausen, John A. (ed.)
1968 Socialization and Society. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Coleman, James S.
1961 The Adolescent Society. New York: The Free Press.

Costner, Herbert L.
1965 "Criteria for Measures of Association." American Sociological Review 30 (June): 341-352.

Dager, Edward Z.
1964 "Socialization and Personality Development in the Child." Pp. 740-781 in Harold T. Christensen (ed.), Handbook of Marriage and the Family. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Davis, Kingsley.
1940 "The Sociology of Parent-Youth Conflict." American Sociological Review 20 (December): 523-534.

Douvan, Elizabeth, and Joseph Adelson.
1966 The Adolescent Experience. New York: John Wiley.

Elkin, Frederick, and William A. Westley.
1958 "The Myth of Adolescent Culture." American Sociological Review 20 (December): 680-684.

Epperson, D.C.
1964 "A Reassessment of Indices of Parental Influence in the Adolescent Society." American Sociological Review 29 (February): 93-96.

Erickson, Erik (ed.)
1963 The Challenge of Youth. New York: Doubleday (Anchor Books).

Freeman, Linton C.
1965 Elementary Applied Statistics. New York: John Wiley.

Goodman, Leo A.
1964 "Simple Methods for Analyzing Three-Factor Interaction in Contingency Tables." Journal of the American Statistical Association 59 (June): 319-347.

Goodman, Leo A., and William H. Kruskal.
1954 "Measures of Association for Gross-Classifications." Journal of the American Statistical Association 49 (December): 732-764.

Goodman, Norman.
1965 "The Adolescent's Reference Set." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association.
1967 "Adolescent Norms and Behavior: Organization and Conformity." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association.

Glidewell, John C.
1966 "Socialization and Social Structure in the Classroom." Pp. 221-256 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research II. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Goldstein, Bernard.
1967 Low Income Youth in Urban Areas: A Critical Review of the Literature. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Gottlieb, David, and Charles Ramsey.
1964 The American Adolescent. New York: Dorsey.

Gottlieb, David, Jon Reeves, and Warren D. TenHouten.
1966 The Emergence of Youth Societies: A Cross-Cultural Approach. New York: The Free Press.

Herman, Melvin, Stanley Sadofsky, and Bernard Rosenberg.
1968 Work, Youth, and Unemployment. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell.

Hollingshead, August B.
1957 Two-Factor Index of Social Position. Mimeographed.

Homans, George.
1958 The Human Group. New York: Harcourt, Brace, World.

Jacobsen, R. Brooke.
1968 Intrafamily Modes of Socialization: Theoretical Development and Test. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Oregon.

Johnson, Stephen C.
1967 "Hierarchical Clustering Schemes." Psychometrika 32 (September): 241-254.

Kagan, Jerome.
1964 "Acquisition and Significance of Sex Typing and Sex Role Identity." Pp. 137-168 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research I. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Keniston, Kenneth.
1960 The Uncommitted: Alienated Youth in American Society. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Lane, W. Clayton, Robert A. Ellis, and Douglas P. Card (eds.)
1966 Relative Efficacy of Interviewing and Questionnaire Procedures. Eugene, Oregon: Center for Research in Occupational Planning.

Maccoby, Eleanor E.
1964 "Effects of the Mass Media." Pp. 323-348 in Martin L. Hoffman and Lois Wladis Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research I. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
1966 The Development of Sex Differences. California: Stanford University Press.

Merton, Robert K., George G. Reader, and Patricia L. Kendall (eds.)
1957 The Student Physician. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Musgrove, Frank
1965 "Primary and Formal Aspects of Family Organization: Group Consensus, Problem Perception, and Adolescent School Success." Journal of Marriage and Family 27 (May): 213-218.

Neiman, L. J.
1954 "The Influence of Peer Groups upon Attitudes toward the Feminine Role." Social Problems 2 (March): 104-111.

Parsons, Talcott and R. F. Bales.
1955 Family, Socialization, and Interaction Process. Glencoe: The Free Press.

Rhea, Buford, et al.
1966 Measures of Child Development and Alienation from the School Program. Unpublished manuscript available from the Department of Sociology. Boston College. Chestnut Hill, Mass.

Ritchie, Oscar W., and Marvin R. Koller.
1964 Sociology of Childhood. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Rodgers, Roy H.
1966 "The Occupational Role of the Child: A Research Frontier in the Developmental Conceptual Framework." Social Forces 45 (December): 217-224.

Rodgers, Roy H., and R. Brooke Jacobsen.
1967 "Intrafamily Consensus and Effective Socialization." Unpublished paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association.

Rodman, Hyman, and Paul Grams.
1967 "Juvenile Delinquency and the Family: A Review and Discussion." Pp. 188-221 in the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Rosen, B. C.
1965 Adolescence and Religion: The Jewish Teenager in American Society. Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing.

Rosenberg, Morris.
1962 "Test Factor Standardization as a Method of Interpretation." Social Forces 41 (October): 53-61.

Schafer, Walter, and Kenneth Polk.
1967 "Delinquency and the Schools." Pp. 222-278 in the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Schwartz, Gary, and Don Merton.
1967 "The Language of Adolescence: An Anthropological Approach to the Youth Culture." American Journal of Sociology 72 (March): 453-469.

Short, James F.
1966 "Juvenile Delinquency: The Sociocultural Context." Pp. 423-468 in Lois Wladis Hoffman and Martin L. Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research II. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Slocum, Walter L.
1963 Family Culture Patterns and Adolescent Behavior. Pullman: Washington State University.

Stinchcombe, Arthur I.
1964 Rebellion in a High School. Chicago: Quadrangle Books.

White, Richard H.
1968 "Toward a Theory of Religious Influence." Pacific Sociological Review 11 (Spring): 23-28.

Winch, Robert R.
1962 Identification and Its Familial Determinants. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.

APPENDIX A

Standardization

For the purpose of clarification, the standardization technique may be briefly described. In standardization, the effect of the test variable(s) - any number of variables may be controlled as long as the cells have frequencies - is held constant by providing each category of the independent or predictor variable with an equal distribution of the test variable(s). This procedure may be illustrated in the following way. Let us say that we have a fourfold table presenting the relationship between X (the predictor variable) and Y (the dependent variable).

	X		
Y	P_{11}	P_{12}	P_{13}
	P_{21}	P_{22}	P_{23}
	P_{31}	P_{32}	P_{33}

By introducing an additional variable, the test factor Z, we create several partial tables. The number of partials will depend on the number of categories in the test variable(s).

Z=1

	X		
Y	$P_{11.1}$	$P_{12.1}$	$P_{13.1}$
	$P_{21.1}$	$P_{22.1}$	$P_{23.1}$
	$P_{31.1}$	$P_{32.1}$	$P_{33.1}$

Z=2

	X		
Y	$P_{11.2}$	$P_{12.2}$	$P_{13.2}$
	$P_{21.2}$	$P_{22.2}$	$P_{23.2}$
	$P_{31.2}$	$P_{32.2}$	$P_{33.2}$

Z=3

	X		
Y	$P_{11.3}$	$P_{12.3}$	$P_{13.3}$
	$P_{21.3}$	$P_{22.3}$	$P_{23.3}$
	$P_{31.3}$	$P_{32.3}$	$P_{33.3}$

The objective of test factor standardization is to create a frequency table representing the average effect of the test variable(s) on the original X-Y relationship. We may refer to this table with the symbol S meaning the standardized table.

(Standardized on Z)

X

Y	SP_{11}	SP_{12}	SP_{13}
	SP_{21}	SP_{22}	SP_{23}
	SP_{31}	SP_{32}	SP_{33}

To obtain a standardized percentage (SP_{11}) corresponding to cell (P_{11}) in the X-Y table the following procedure is used.

$$SP = \frac{P_{11.1}}{P_{31.1}} (P_{33.1}) (P_{33}) + \frac{P_{11.2}}{P_{31.2}} (P_{33.2}) (P_{33}) + \frac{P_{11.3}}{P_{31.3}} (P_{33.3}) (P_{33})$$

A similar procedure is followed for each of the remaining 3 cells (SP_{12}, SP_{21}, and SP_{22}). The above formula allows the computation of: (a) the proportion of each partial table to the original zero order total N, and (b) the proportion of each cell to the total N in each partial table. This procedure produces a table of theoretical percentages. In order to compute a measure of association - in this case, gamma - for comparison with the original X-Y correlation obtained, the percentages must be converted into frequencies. To do so, each theoretical cell is multiplied by the marginal N's for the various categories of the independent variable, e.g., the theoretical frequency for $SP_{11} = (SP_{11}) (P_{31})$.

APPENDIX B

Parent-Adolescent Affect

The character and quality of the adolescent's relationship with his parents is widely seen as a significant element in the attitudes and behaviors of youth (cf. Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Bowerman and Kinch, 1959; Slocum, 1963; Cervantees, 1965). Similarly, the relative freedom of communication between parents and their teenagers has been asserted as perhaps the most predominant area of difficulty in the family (cf. Dube, 1965). Therefore, these dimensions of the family-adolescent configuration must be considered in assessing the salience hierarchy. Indeed, the theoretical model outlines in Chapter 1 is based on the assumption that the "relationship" of the adolescent with his reference sets is (a) missing in other conceptions of salience and (b) that this model provides a conceptual shelter for other explanations. It is hypothesized that the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship (or affect) will be a more efficient predictor of the salience hierarchy than all other predictive models currently being used. The next section describes the measurement of the parent-adolescent affect.

Eleven items were used to measure the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship. These are listed below.

ITEMS USED TO MEASURE THE QUALITY OF THE PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP

For each of the following items four alternative responses were possible: Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.[a]

1. My father understands my problems.
2. My father is willing to talk with me when I have a problem.
3. My father is interested in the things I like to do.
4. My father knows the subjects I study.
5. My father really helps me understand the lessons.
6. I find it difficult to talk with my father about things that trouble me.
7. My father always acts as if he likes me.
8. My father trys his best to be a good father.
9. I like my father very much.

---

[a] Identical questions were asked regarding the adolescent's relationship with his mother. Responses obtained regarding the adolescent's relationship with his father and his mother for the same item were collapsed by simply adding the two responses: a total of 2-3 became 1 (High), 4-5 became 2 (Medium), and 6-8 became 3 (Low). Responses 3-4 in items 10 and 11, below, were collapsed into category 3 (Low).

The following two questions did not differentiate between mother and father.

10. Some young people believe that their parents are old fashioned or out of "touch" with youth. Do you feel this way about your parents?

( ) No, never
( ) Yes, sometimes
( ) Yes, often
( ) Yes, always

11. When your family eats out, goes on a picnic, goes to a movie, goes to a concert, or goes anywhere together, what are your feelings about going along?

( ) I enjoy going with my family very much
( ) I enjoy going with my family somewhat
( ) I do not enjoy going with my family - I would just as soon do something else
( ) I would prefer not to go with my family at all

Several differing items are used to measure the parent-adolescent relationship including: understanding, willingness, interest, knowlege, ability, difficulty of communication, consistent affect, motivation, affect of child for parents, cultural disparity, and the enjoyment of "family" togetherness. Each of these items was subjected to the hierarchical clustering analysis technique.

The determination of which items to use in the indexes in this study operated under several guidelines. The hierarchical clustering technique permitted an evaluation of similarity in response pattern and distinctiveness in response pattern among the adolescents. The second and more important guideline was theoretical. That is, the items selected for the measurement of parent-adolescent affect were included because of their theoretical relevance. Therefore, the items chosen for the index were selected firstly, for their theoretical priority and secondly, for their ability to differentiate adolescents into those having a high quality, medium quality and low quality relationship with their parents. Five items were selected: understanding, willingness, interest, cultural disparity, and enjoyment of family activity. Each item is significantly correlated with the index created.

FORM A - STUDENT

____
IBM NUMBER

OREGON STUDENT SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

____
(Full Name of Your School)

Your Sex: ( ) Male

( ) Female

____
(Your Grade)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the life of young people. We are interested in finding out something about your parents, your best friends, your teachers, and your school. We believe that you will enjoy answering the questions.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question frankly, honestly, and to the best of your ability. Your parents, best friends, or teachers will never see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how students in general answer the questions rather than in how any particular student answers them.

INSTRUCTIONS

A. A number of items use the terms "MOTHER" and "FATHER." If you are not currently living with your natural mother or father, the terms should be taken to mean your "STEPMOTHER, STEPFATHER, MALE GUARDIAN, or FEMALE GUARDIAN, or FOSTER MOTHER or FATHER" - whoever you are living with. The term "PARENTS" refers to your current parents or "PARENT" if you were only living with one of your parents during the past year. NOTE: If you have not lived with both of your parents during the past year (since October, 1967) but did live with both of your parents before this time, then answer all questions just as if your parents were still living together. If, however, you have lived with only one of your parents for more than a year then check (✓) the box that applies in each question and go on to the next question.

B. Read each item carefully. Answer it to the best of your knowledge. Please check (✓) or circle only one answer. However, do not spend too much time on any one question. If there is not an appropriate answer available then write in your answer or write in "I don't know."

C. Be sure to follow the directions given for answering each question.

D. Do not skip any questions unless you are instructed to do so.

E. If you wish to make comments, please feel free to do so, and write them in the margin by the questions or at the end of the questionnaire.

F. The small numbers that frequently appear in the questionnaire are for IBM processing equipment. These numbers aid in tabulating your responses at the research office.

H. NOTE: YOU HAVE ALSO RECEIVED A TAKE-HOME PACKET. PLEASE TAKE HOME WITH YOU AND SEE THAT IT IS HANDED EITHER TO YOUR MOTHER OR FATHER AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THIS PACKET WITH THEIR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE WITH YOUR PARENTS UNTIL THEY HAVE FILLED OUT THEIRS!

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION -

CARD ONE

12. HOW OLD ARE YOU TODAY?

1. ( ) 10-11 years
2. ( ) 12 years
3. ( ) 13 years
4. ( ) 14 years
5. ( ) 15 years
6. ( ) 16 years
7. ( ) 17 years
8. ( ) 18 years
9. ( ) 19+ years

13. WHAT IS YOUR RACIAL BACKGROUND?

1. ( ) White
2. ( ) Negro
3. ( ) Oriental
4. ( ) American Indian
5. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

14. WHAT IS YOUR SEX?

1. ( ) Male
2. ( ) Female

15. WHAT GRADE ARE YOU IN?

1. ( ) 7th grade
2. ( ) 8th grade
3. ( ) 9th grade
4. ( ) 10th grade
5. ( ) 11th grade
6. ( ) 12th grade

16. WHAT KIND OF PROGRAM ARE YOU TAKING IN SCHOOL? NOTE: If you are not in one of these programs now, which one will you be in?

1. ( ) College Prep - (a course of study that prepares you for college)
2. ( ) General - (a course of study that does not prepare you for college)
9. ( ) I don't know

17. HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ONLY! Which areas of study are you emphasizing. If more than one, check the area in which you take the most courses.

1. ( ) Business education
2. ( ) English
3. ( ) Fine Arts
4. ( ) Foreign language
5. ( ) Humanities
6. ( ) Industrial Arts
7. ( ) Mathematics
8. ( ) Physical Education
9. ( ) Science

18. ARE YOUR MOTHER AND FATHER NOW LIVING?

1. ( ) Both are living
2. ( ) Only my father is living
3. ( ) Only my mother is living
4. ( ) Neither parent is living

19. ARE YOUR PARENTS DIVORCED OR SEPARATED?

1. ( ) No, they are not divorced or separated
2. ( ) Yes, they are divorced
3. ( ) Yes, they are separated

20. WITH WHOM DO YOU LIVE?

1. ( ) With both my mother and father
2. ( ) With only my mother
3. ( ) With only my father
4. ( ) With my mother and stepfather
5. ( ) With my father and stepmother
6. ( ) With foster parents
7. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

21-26. WRITE THE FIRST NAMES OF EACH ONE OF YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. Indicate how old they are and whether they are a brother (put B) or sister (put S). If you have no brothers or sisters place a checkmark in the category below: "No brothers," and "No sisters."

Example:	Sex	Age
John	B	12

( ) No brothers ( ) No sisters

27. HOW OFTEN DO YOU GO TO THE MOVIES?

1. ( ) never - SKIP TO QUESTION 29
2. ( ) several times a year
3. ( ) about once a month
4. ( ) two or three times a month
5. ( ) about once a week
6. ( ) more than once a week

GO ON TO QUESTION 28

28. WHEN YOU GO TO THE MOVIES, WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN GO WITH?

1. ( ) your parents
2. ( ) your best friends
3. ( ) your brothers or sisters

29. ABOUT HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND WATCHING TV ON WEEKDAYS?

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
5. ( ) about 2 hours a day
6. ( ) 3 or more hours a day

The following four items are about your plans for a job and for an education. There are two types of questions. One type is called "REALLY LIKE TO" and the other type is called "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO." There is a very important difference between these questions.

A "REALLY LIKE TO" question on jobs asks you to choose what you most want to do. For example, you may really want to be an engineer or a lawyer. A "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO" question on jobs asks what you think you will actually do. For example, because you know that you cannot afford a college education you actually expect to be a mechanic. Please keep this difference in mind when you answer the following questions.

30. SUPPOSING YOU HAD THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., HOW FAR WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trace or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanic school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters, Ph.D)
9. ( ) I don't know

31. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, ETC., HOW FAR DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example beauty or auto mechanic school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters, Ph.D)
9. ( ) I don't know

32. SUPPOSING YOU COULD HAVE THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, EDUCATION, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

____

(Specific name or title of job you would really like to have. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

33. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, CHANCES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL, COLLEGE, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

____

(Specific name or title of job you actually expect to get. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

34. WHAT ARE YOUR PLANS REGARDING MARRIAGE?

1. ( ) I am married now
2. ( ) I plan to get married soon after I get out of high school
3. ( ) I plan to get married while in the service or while I am in college
4. ( ) I plan to finish all my schooling and/or service obligations before I marry
5. ( ) I do not plan to marry at all
6. ( ) I am undecided

Young people usually have some specific ideas about the school they attend. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
35. School is dull and boring	SA	A	D	SD
36. School is a waste of time for the type of work I will be doing	SA	A	D	SD
37. My teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	SA	A	D	SD
38. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everybody has an equal opportunity to get good grades. The teachers do not have favorites	SA	A	D	SD
39. I like school very much	SA	A	D	SD

The following statements are about your relationships with your teachers. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of most of your teachers. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
40. My teachers understand my problems	SA	A	D	SD
41. My teachers are willing to talk with me when I have a question	SA	A	D	SD
42. My teachers are interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
43. My teachers know their subjects well	SA	A	D	SD
44. My teachers really help me understand the lessons	SA	A	D	SD
45. I find it difficult to talk with my teachers about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
46. My teachers always act as if they like me	SA	A	D	SD
47. My teachers like their jobs	SA	A	D	SD
48. My teachers do the best they can in their jobs	SA	A	D	SD
49. I like my teachers very much	SA	A	D	SD

50. PLEASE RATE YOUR TEACHERS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISION ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My teachers are able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My teachers are able to help me but they are not willing
3. ( ) My teachers are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. ( ) My teachers are neither able nor willing to help me decide

51. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

52. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

The following statements are about your relationships with your father. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer. NOTE: IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN LIVING WITH YOUR FATHER DURING THE PAST YEAR PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 69 ON THE NEXT PAGE. REMEMBER: The term "father" refers to whoever you are living with - stepfather, male guardian, or foster father.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
53. My father understands my problems	SA	A	D	SD
54. My father is willing to talk with me when I have a problem	SA	A	D	SD
55. My father is interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
56. My father knows the subjects I study	SA	A	D	SD
57. My father really helps me understand the lessons	SA	A	D	SD
58. I find it difficult to talk with my father about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
59. My father always acts as if he likes me	SA	A	D	SD
60. My father likes his job	SA	A	D	SD
61. My father does the best he can on his job	SA	A	D	SD
62. My father trys his best to be a good father	SA	A	D	SD
63. I like my father very much	SA	A	D	SD

64. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

65. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

66. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR FATHER SAID HE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) He hasn't said

67. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR FATHER SAID HE ACTUALLY EXPECTS YOU TO GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) He hasn't said

68. PLEASE RATE YOUR FATHER ON HIS ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My father is able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My father is able to help me but he is not willing
3. ( ) My father is willing to help me, but he is not able
4. ( ) My father is neither able nor willing to help me decide

---

The following statements are about your relationships with your mother. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer. NOTE: IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN LIVING WITH YOUR MOTHER DURING THE PAST YEAR PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 17 ON THE NEXT PAGE. REMEMBER: The term "mother" refers to whoever you are living with - stepmother, female guardian, or foster mother.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
69. My mother understands my problems	SA	A	D	SD
70. My mother is willing to talk with me when I have a problem	SA	A	D	SD
71. My mother is interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
72. My mother knows the subjects I study	SA	A	D	SD
73. My mother really helps me understand my lessons	SA	A	D	SD
74. I find it difficult to talk with my mother about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
75. My mother likes her job (If she doesn't work, answer this question in terms of her being a housewife)	SA	A	D	SD
76. My mother does the best she can on her job	SA	A	D	SD
77. My mother trys her best to be a good mother	SA	A	D	SD
78. My mother always acts as if she likes me	SA	A	D	SD
79. I like my mother very much	SA	A	D	SD

CARD TWO

12. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

13. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

14. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) She hasn't said

15. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE ACTUALLY EXPECTS YOU TO GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) She hasn't said

16. PLEASE RATE YOUR MOTHER ON HER ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My mother is able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My mother is able to help me but she is not willing
3. ( ) My mother is willing to help me, but she is not able
4. ( ) My mother is neither able nor willing to help me decide

---

17. WILL YOUR PARENTS HELP YOU REACH YOUR SCHOOL AND WORK GOALS BY HELPING YOU PAY YOUR WAY?

1. ( ) No, they can't afford to help me at all
2. ( ) Yes, they will help me some
3. ( ) Yes, they will help me quite a bit

The following two statements are about your relationships with your best friends. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
18. My best friends like school	SA	A	D	SD
19. My best friends do the best they can in their school work	SA	A	D	SD

20. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

21. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

22. PLEASE RATE YOUR BEST FRIENDS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My best friends are able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My best friends are able to help me but they are not willing
3. ( ) My best friends are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. ( ) My best friends are neither able nor willing to help me decide

The following statements are about your relationships with your parents and best friends. As you read each description, consider whether your parents (P) or best friends (BF) fits the description the best. Please circle your answer. Note: If you feel that your parents and best friends both fit the description equally well (the same) then you may circle "same" (Sa).

WHO (Parents or Best Friends):	1.	2.	3.
23. best understands your problems	P	BF	Sa
24. is most willing to talk with you when you have a problem	P	BF	Sa
25. is most interested in the things you like to do	P	BF	Sa
26. best knows your school subjects	P	BF	Sa
27. best helps you understand the school lessons	P	BF	Sa

- go to top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.
28. is most difficult to talk with about things that trouble you	P	BF	Sa
29. most often acts as if they like you	P	BF	Sa
30. do you like the best	P	BF	Sa
31. tries the hardest to help you when you have a problem	P	BF	Sa
32. is it the easiest to talk to	P	BF	Sa
33. would you most like to get "closer to"	P	BF	Sa
34. has the most influence on you	P	BF	Sa
35. has the most control over you	P	BF	Sa

36. WHEN YOU ARE TRYING TO MAKE UP YOUR MIND ABOUT SOMETHING IMPORTANT, WHOSE IDEAS DO YOU PAY THE MOST ATTENTION TO?

1. ( ) Best Friends
2. ( ) Parents
3. ( ) Both about the same
4. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

37. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THREE THINGS WOULD MAKE YOU THE MOST UNHAPPY?

1. ( ) Best Friends did not like what I did
2. ( ) Parents did not like what I did
3. ( ) Favorite teacher did not like what I did

38. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS WOULD BE THE HARDEST FOR YOU TO TAKE?

1. ( ) Best Friends' disapproval
2. ( ) Parents' disapproval
3. ( ) Teachers' disapproval

39. LET'S SAY THAT YOU HAVE ALWAYS WANTED TO BELONG TO A PARTICULAR CLUB THAT YOUR BEST FRIENDS ARE MEMBERS OF, AND FINALLY YOU WERE ASKED TO JOIN. BUT, THEN YOU FOUND OUT THAT YOUR PARENTS DON'T APPROVE OF THE GROUP. Do you think you would. . . .

1. ( ) definitely join anyway
2. ( ) probably join
3. ( ) probably not join
4. ( ) definitely not join

40. SOME YOUNG PEOPLE BELIEVE THAT THEIR PARENTS ARE OLD FASHIONED OR OUT OF "TOUCH" WITH YOUTH. Do you feel this way about your parents?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

41. WHEN YOUR FAMILY EATS OUT, GOES ON A PICNIC, GOES TO A MOVIE, GOES TO A CONCERT, OR GOES ANYWHERE TOGETHER, WHAT ARE YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT GOING ALONG?

1. ( ) I enjoy going with my family very much
2. ( ) I enjoy going with my family somewhat
3. ( ) I do not enjoy going with my family--I would just as soon do something else
4. ( ) I would prefer not to go with my family at all

42. IF YOUR FAMILY WAS PLANNING TO EAT OUT, GO ON A PICNIC, GO TO A CONCERT, OR GO ANYWHERE TOGETHER, AND YOU HAD THE OPPORTUNITY TO GO SOMEWHERE WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS WHO WOULD YOU GO WITH?

1. ( ) Definitely go with family
2. ( ) Probably go with family
3. ( ) Probably go with best friends
4. ( ) Definitely go with best friends

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DESCRIPTIONS CIRCLE THE LETTER OF THE PERSON THAT BEST FITS THE DESCRIPTION. F = Father, M = Mother, B = best Friend, and T = favorite Teacher.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
43. the person whose company I most enjoy	F	M	B	T
44. the person whom I would most like to be like	F	M	B	T
45. the person whose ideas about fun are most like mine	F	M	B	T
46. the person whose ideas about right and wrong are most like mine	F	M	B	T
47. the person whose ideas about the importance of school are most like mine	F	M	B	T
48. the person whose interests are most like mine	F	M	B	T

People usually have some specific ideas about themselves. Some of these are listed below. As you read them, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of your feelings about yourself. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
49. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	SA	A	D	SD
50. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	SA	A	D	SD
51. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	SA	A	D	SD
52. I am able to do things as well as most people	SA	A	D	SD
53. I feel I do not have much to be proud of	SA	A	D	SD
54. I like myself	SA	A	D	SD
55. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	SA	A	D	SD
56. I wish I could have more respect for myself	SA	A	D	SD
57. I certainly feel useless at times	SA	A	D	SD
58. At times I think I am no good at all	SA	A	D	SD

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS IN WHICH YOU FACE AN IMPORTANT DECISION. READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY AND INDICATE WHICH OF THE TWO THINGS YOU WOULD MOST LIKELY DO IF YOU ACTUALLY FACED THE SITUATION.

59. You have been invited to a party to which you want very much to go. Your best friends have decided to go and are urging you to go too. They will be very unhappy if you don't go. Your parents, however, do not approve of the party and are urging you not to go. Your parents will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. ( ) Go to the party
2. ( ) Stay home

60. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

61. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents are urging you to go to the party. However, your best friends have not been invited and are urging you not to go. You really don't want to go to the party. Your parents will be very unhappy if you don't go; your best friends will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. ( ) Go to party
2. ( ) Stay home

62. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

63. A large glass in the front door of the high school has been broken. Jim broke the glass. But both he and Bill were seen at the school the afternoon the glass was broken and both are suspected. Bill and Jim are friends and they agree to deny that they know anything about the broken glass. As a result, the principal pins the blame on both of them. You are the only person who knows who broke the glass because you were at school that afternoon. You didn't actually see the glass broken, but you heard the noise and saw Jim walking away from the door just afterwards. You are very much undecided what to do. The three friends you go around with most of the time don't think you should tell the principal. These friends hate to see an innocent person punished. But they point out to you that this is a matter between Jim and Bill and between Jim and his conscience. You talk the matter over with your mother and father. They feel that Jim is unfairly using Bill to lighten his own punishment. Your parents think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?

1. ( ) Tell the principal who broke the glass
2. ( ) Not tell the principal who broke the glass

- go to top of the next page -

64. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

65. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents think that you should not tell the principal. Your best friends, however, think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?

1. ( ) Tell the principal who broke the glass
2. ( ) Not tell the principal who broke the glass

66. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

67. You are at a point in school where you must make a decision between a college preparation program and a general program (noncollege oriented). Your best friends have all decided to enter the general program and are urging you to do the same. You want to because if you don't your friends will be very unhappy as you will be separated from them in school. Your parents, however, are strongly urging you to take the college prep program. You know also that your parents will be very unhappy if you decide not to do what they wish. Which program are you likely to enter?

1. ( ) General Program (not college prep)
2. ( ) College Preparatory

68. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

69. Suppose the situation described above is reversed. Your parents want you to enter the general program while your best friends want you to enter the college prep program with them. You really prefer the college prep program. Which program are you likely to enter?

1. ( ) General program (noncollege prep)
2. ( ) College preparatory

70. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

71. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.

____

(Specific name or title of job parents say they would really like to see you get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)

72. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY ACTUALLY EXPECT YOU TO GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.

____

(Specific name or title of job parents say they actually expect you to get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)

73-75. LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. PLEASE CHECK (✓) ALL OF THOSE IN WHICH YOU PLAN TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS YEAR.

01. ( ) A Cappella Choir
02. ( ) Art
03. ( ) Band or orchestra
04. ( ) Basketball
05. ( ) Baseball
06. ( ) Bleacher crew
07. ( ) C-12
08. ( ) Chair crew
09. ( ) Cheerleading
10. ( ) Chess club
11. ( ) Chorus
12. ( ) Class officer
13. ( ) Club officer
14. ( ) Coin club
15. ( ) Committee officer
16. ( ) Dance (Prom) committee
17. ( ) Debating team
18. ( ) Dilettantes
19. ( ) Drama club (National Thesbian society)
20. ( ) Football
21. ( ) Forestry club
22. ( ) Forsenics team
23. ( ) 4-H clubs
24. ( ) Future Business Leaders of America
25. ( ) Future Farmers of America
26. ( ) Future Homemakers of America

- go to top of the next page -

27. ( ) Future Teachers of America
28. ( ) German club
29. ( ) Girls Drill Team
30. ( ) Girls Recreational Association
31. ( ) Girls Glee club
32. ( ) Girls League
33. ( ) Homecoming committee
34. ( ) Industrial Arts club
35. ( ) Indian Craft
36. ( ) International Relations League
37. ( ) Junior Community Aides
38. ( ) Key club
39. ( ) Les Saucissons
40. ( ) Les Touches
41. ( ) Letterman's
42. ( ) Library club
43. ( ) Math club
44. ( ) National Honor Society
45. ( ) NuDelta
46. ( ) Newspaper staff - Orange "R"
47. ( ) Pepsters
48. ( ) Radio club
49. ( ) Rally squad
50. ( ) Science club
51. ( ) Spanish club
52. ( ) Speech club
53. ( ) Student Beneficiary club
54. ( ) Student council or Associated Student Body
55. ( ) Swimming
56. ( ) Tennis
57. ( ) Track and field
58. ( ) Torquers club
59. ( ) Varsity R
60. ( ) Warrior Guard
61. ( ) Wrestling
62. ( ) Yearbook staff
63. ( ) Young Republicans
64. ( ) Young Democrats
65. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

CARD THREE

MANY YOUNG PEOPLE LIKE YOURSELF FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH THEIR PARENTS ABOUT SOME THINGS AND NOT DIFFICULT AT ALL TO TALK TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT OTHER THINGS. As you read each question, consider whether you never (N), sometimes (S), often (O), or always (A) have difficulty in talking about the problem with your father, mother, and best friends. Please circle your answer. Note: If you haven't talked about a given problem with your parents or best friends, do you feel you might have difficulty if you did? How often?

NOTE: If you have not been living with your father during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 24.

- go to top of the page -

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR FATHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
13. How to dress	N	S	O	A
14. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
15. Job	N	S	O	A
16. Religion	N	S	O	A
17. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
18. Money	N	S	O	A
19. Fears	N	S	O	A
20. Late hours	N	S	O	A
21. Dating	N	S	O	A
22. Marriage	N	S	O	A
23. Education	N	S	O	A

NOTE: If you have not been living with your mother during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 36.

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR MOTHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
24. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
25. How to dress	N	S	O	A
26. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
27. Job	N	S	O	A
28. Religion	N	S	O	A
29. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
30. Money	N	S	O	A
31. Fears	N	S	O	A
32. Late hours	N	S	O	A
33. Dating	N	S	O	A
34. Marriage	N	S	O	A
35. Education	N	S	O	A

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
36. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
37. How to dress	N	S	O	A
38. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
39. Job	N	S	O	A
40. Religion	N	S	O	A
41. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
42. Money	N	S	O	A
43. Fears	N	S	O	A
44. Late hours	N	S	O	A
45. Dating	N	S	O	A
46. Marriage	N	S	O	A
47. Education	N	S	O	A

48. GENERALLY, WITH WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN DISCUSS THINGS THAT ARE DIFFICULT FOR YOU TO TALK ABOUT?

1. ( ) Best Friends
2. ( ) Parents
3. ( ) Both about the same

People usually report they have some specific requirements in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL FUTURE JOB. Some of the requirements they have mentioned are listed below. As you read them, consider to what extent a job or career would have to satisfy each of these requirements before you could consider the job IDEAL.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the requirement highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the requirement of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the requirement of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the requirement of no importance at all.

- go to top of the page -

THE IDEAL JOB WOULD:	1.	2.	3.	4.
49. Provide an opportunity to use my special abilities or aptitudes	H	M	L	N
50. Provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money	H	M	L	N
51. Permit me to be creative and original	H	M	L	N
52. Give me a social status and prestige	H	M	L	N
53. Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things	H	M	L	N
54. Enable me to look forward to a stable, secure future	H	M	L	N
55. Leave me relatively free of supervision by others	H	M	L	N
56. Give me a chance to exercise leadership	H	M	L	N
57. Provide me with adventure	H	M	L	N
58. Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others	H	M	L	N

59. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL FUTURE JOB?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

People who go on to school after high school do so for many reasons. Some of these reasons are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each reason is to you. NOTE: If you do not expect to go to more school after you graduate indicate how important the reason would be if you were planning to go.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the reason highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the reason of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the reason of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the reason of no importance at all.

- go to top of the next page -

REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
60. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living	H	M	L	N
61. To prepare for an occupation	H	M	L	N
62. To learn new things just to know them	H	M	L	N
63. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook	H	M	L	N
64. To enjoy social life	H	M	L	N
65. To have fun	H	M	L	N
66. Because friends expect it	H	M	L	N
67. Because parents expect it	H	M	L	N
68. To learn to get along with others	H	M	L	N
69. To find the right person to marry	H	M	L	N
70. To develop personality and character	H	M	L	N
71. To become a responsible person	H	M	L	N

72. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about the rights and responsibilities of parents and children. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD), that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
73. Children should not be forced to eat if they don't want to	SA	A	D	SD
74. Children should be permitted to tell their parents what they think about them	SA	A	D	SD
75. Parents should punish a child when he misbehaves	SA	A	D	SD

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
76. Children should eat just what they like	SA	A	D	SD
77. When a child wants his own way his parents should let him have it	SA	A	D	SD
78. Parents should not give in when a child wants his own way	SA	A	D	SD

CARD FOUR

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL MARRIAGE. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Husbands and wives should share equally in all decisions	H	M	L	N
13. Although a husband should consult his wife about what to do, he should make the final decision in important matters	H	M	L	N
14. Husbands should only make the final decisions in areas in which they have more training than their wives	H	M	L	N
15. When a husband and wife disagree about something, a wife should be willing to give in first	H	M	L	N

- go to top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
16. Teenage children should be consulted for their opinions before decisions are made	H	M	L	N
17. In a marriage the husband should do his jobs and the wife her jobs	H	M	L	N
18. A wife should get up and fix her husband breakfast on work days regardless of what time he has to leave in the morning	H	M	L	N
19. If both a husband and wife are working, a husband should help fix the evening meal and do dishes	H	M	L	N
20. A husband should do his wife's work and a wife her husband's work if necessary	H	M	L	N

21. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL MARRIAGE?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: ____________________)

People usually have many ideas about what a student ought to do in school. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance at all.

A STUDENT OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
22. Spend most of spare time reading and studying	H	M	L	N
23. Do very best in school work (grades, study)	H	M	L	N
24. Be a star in sports activities	H	M	L	N

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
25. Be a leader in school activities	H	M	L	N
26. Be popular with his (her) classmates	H	M	L	N
27. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing	H	M	L	N

People have many ideas about what young people like yourself ought to do. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
28. Have his (her) own car	SA	A	D	SD
29. Make own decisions about late hours, smoking, drinking	SA	A	D	SD
30. Choose own dates	SA	A	D	SD
31. Choose own clubs or groups to join	SA	A	D	SD
32. Be active in nonschool activities such as Boy Scouts, religious youth groups	SA	A	D	SD
33. Choose own friends	SA	A	D	SD
34. Be trusted	SA	A	D	SD
35. Be punished for breaking the law just like anybody else	SA	A	D	SD
36. Be supervised by adults at nonschool parties	SA	A	D	SD
37. Have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where not to go	SA	A	D	SD

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do at home. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
38. do things around the house without being asked	H	M	L	N
39. help with setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, sweeping, dusting, washing and ironing clothes	H	M	L	N
40. help with cooking and planning main meals, sewing, interior design	H	M	L	N
41. help with mowing lawn, taking out garbage, shopping for groceries	H	M	L	N
42. help with shopping for furniture, appliances, cars	H	M	L	N
43. be consulted for any major decisions that need to be made	H	M	L	N
44. obey his parents even though he thinks they are wrong	H	M	L	N
45. be respectful to his parents	H	M	L	N
46. show his parents that he loves them	H	M	L	N

47. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR PARENTS NAG AND QUARREL WITH EACH OTHER?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly
9. ( ) not living with father
   ( ) not living with mother

48. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW DISAGREEMENTS ARE SETTLED IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. ( ) Neither my father nor my mother usually give in
2. ( ) My father usually gives in to my mother
3. ( ) My mother usually gives in to my father
4. ( ) My parents usually reach an agreement through mutual give and take
5. ( ) My parents never or seldom have any disagreements
   9. ( ) not living with father
      ( ) not living with mother

49. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT DECISIONS ARE MADE IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. ( ) Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother
2. ( ) Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself
3. ( ) Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together
4. ( ) Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself
5. ( ) Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father
   9. ( ) not living with father
      ( ) not living with mother

50. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES YOUR PART IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) My parents never ask for my opinion
2. ( ) My parents sometimes ask for my opinion
3. ( ) My parents often ask for my opinion
4. ( ) My parents almost always ask for my opinion

51. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOUR PARENTS REGARD YOUR OPINION IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What I say usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What I say usually does make a difference in the decision

52. EVERYTHING CONSIDERED, HOW HAPPY HAS YOUR PARENTS MARRIAGE BEEN?

1. ( ) Extremely happy
2. ( ) Very happy
3. ( ) Somewhat happy
4. ( ) Somewhat unhappy
5. ( ) Very unhappy
6. ( ) Extremely unhappy

53. SUPPOSE YOU WANT TO GO TO A MOVIE. YOUR PARENTS REFUSE AND YOU BEGIN TO ARGUE STRONGLY. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. ( ) Let me go to avoid further argument; or become angry and tell me to do as I please
2. ( ) Let me argue but remain firm unless I had sound reasons
3. ( ) Not even listen to me and punish me more for arguing
4. ( ) Continue to refuse and punish me so that I'd learn not to argue

54. SUPPOSE YOUR PARENTS HAVE JUST HEARD FROM YOUR TEACHER THAT YOU HAVE NOT BEEN COMPLETING YOUR HOMEWORK? WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. ( ) Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting my school work
2. ( ) Scold me for a while, but they'd soon forget it
3. ( ) Talk it over with me and help me decide how to meet the problem
4. ( ) Get angry and tell me it will be my own fault if I don't pass

55- WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE?
56. NOTE: Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If you have no religious preference put "none."

____

(Your religious preference. Note: If you have a religious preference, are you a member?)

57. 1. ( ) Yes, I am a member
2. ( ) No, I am not a member

58. HOW OFTEN DO YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL STATEMENTS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. The terms "brothers" and "sisters" refers to whoever you are living with -- step brothers/sisters or foster children.

59. DO YOU HAVE BROTHERS OR SISTERS AT HOME?

1. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 66)
2. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 60)

INDICATE YOUR REACTION TO EACH STATEMENT ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. NOTE: Please circle your answer. N if never, S if sometimes, O if often, and A if always:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
60. Do you talk about sex and the facts of life with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
61. Do you attend movies, basketball games, or concerts, etc., with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
62. Do you talk with any of your brothers or sisters about books, magazines or articles you read	N	S	O	A
63. When you need advice, do you ever go to any of your brothers or sisters for it	N	S	O	A
64. Do you enjoy doing things together with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
65. Do any of your brothers or sisters get a better "deal" than you from your parents	N	S	O	A

66. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

67. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS? (Note: Do not include time spent in the classroom.)

1. ( ) none or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) [✓ about 3 hours a day]
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

68. WHERE DO YOU SPEND MOST OF YOUR FREE TIME WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS?

1. ( ) At school sponsored activities such as ballgames, parties, club meetings
2. ( ) At non-school activities such as youth parties, church meetings
3. ( ) At various places where young people like myself "hang around"
4. ( ) At my place (home)
5. ( ) At one of my friend's places (friends' home)
6. ( ) Other (Where? ______________________)

69. WHAT WOULD YOU SAY WAS YOUR AVERAGE GRADE IN SCHOOL LAST GRADING PERIOD?

1. ( ) Mostly 1's
2. ( ) Mixed 1's and 2's
3. ( ) Mostly 2's
4. ( ) Mixed 2's and 3's
5. ( ) Mostly 3's
6. ( ) Mixed 3's and 4's
7. ( ) Mostly 4's
8. ( ) Mixed 4's and 5's
9. ( ) Mostly 5's

70. HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND EACH DAY DOING HOMEWORK OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL?

1. ( ) None or almost none
2. ( ) About 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) About 1 hour a day
4. ( ) About 1 1/2 hours a day
5. ( ) About 2 hours a day
6. ( ) 3 or more hours a day

71. IF YOU COULD BE REMEMBERED HERE AT SCHOOL FOR ONE OF THE FOUR THINGS BELOW, WHICH ONE WOULD YOU MOST WANT IT TO BE?

1. ( ) Outstanding student
2. ( ) Athletic star
3. ( ) Most popular
4. ( ) Leader in school activities

72. DO YOU DATE?

1. ( ) No
2. ( ) Yes, more than once a week
3. ( ) Yes, once a week
4. ( ) Yes, more than once a month, but less than once a week
5. ( ) Yes, once a month or less

73. HOW MANY PERSONS HAVE YOU DATED DURING THE PAST MONTH?

1. ( ) None
2. ( ) One person
3. ( ) Two to three persons
4. ( ) Four to five persons
5. ( ) Six or more persons

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION. REMEMBER TO TAKE THE "TAKE-HOME PACKET" WITH YOU. PLEASE BE SURE TO URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.